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MA THESIS

Theme: "Comparative linguistic analysis of adverbs and adjectives, their classification and usage"

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

One of the fundamental claims of modern linguistic analysis is that all languages have grammar. It is often said that grammar describes what fluent speakers know of their language - their linguistic competence. If it is true, we can claim that whatever fluent speakers know of their language is a main part of a description of that language. A language is often defined as a conventional system for communication, a system for conveying messages. Furthermore, communication can be reached only because words have certain meanings. Therefore, to characterize the language it is necessary to describe these meanings. So, if a grammar describes a language, part of it must describe meaning and thus the grammar must contain semantics. Moreover, since all languages have words and sentences, they must have morphology and syntax; since these words and sentences have systematic meanings, there also must be semantic principles.

Consequently, the grammar includes everything speakers know about their language – the system of meanings, called semantics; the rules of word formation, called morphology; the rules of sentence formation, called syntax.

This paper examines some aspects of English grammar. It deals with the study of grammatical peculiarities of adverbs and adjectives and provides comparative linguistic analysis of these two parts of speech.

Adverbs and adjectives have always been in the center of attention among different linguists. They have been putting different questions according to their usage and have been trying to find answers to them. They have been looking at these parts of speech separately. However, we think that it is also necessary to compare these parts of speech since they have many common grounds, whether similarities or differences. They are used as complements in a sentence and give some sense to other parts of speech.

Adjectives as a part of speech are characterized by the several features. First, it is their lexico-grammatical meaning of attributes, denoting different properties of substances or things, i.e. nouns, such as size, color, material, place, physical state of person and so on. Then, one of the main features of adjectives is their morphological category, namely their ability to form the degrees of comparison. The degrees of comparison show whether the adjective denotes the attribute of the noun absolutely or relatively as a superior level of the property in comparison with that of other substances. Next, it is their combinability with nouns, link-verbs and adverbs, i.e. their

attributive and predicative syntactical functions. Furthermore, the specific feature of adjectives is their substantivization, which means their conversion into nouns. In this case adjectives no longer point out the properties of substances or things, but they indicate substances themselves which possess those properties.

The adverb as a part of speech is also characterized by various features. First, it is their lexico-grammatical meaning of "qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states or qualities". Similarly with adjectives, their only morphological category is the degrees of comparison. They are also characterized by their combinability with verbs, adjectives, other adverbs and some other categories. Besides, one of the most important features of adverbs is their function as an adverbial complement.

So, the main similarity between adverbs and adjectives is, in our view, their ability to form the degrees of comparison. The way of forming these degrees are the same. Besides, both of adverbs and adjectives may be divided into comparables, i.e. to those which are able to form comparative degrees, and non-comparables, i.e. which are not respectively. However, the number of non-comparable adverbs is greater than the number of non-comparable adjectives.

All these grammatical peculiarities of adverbs and adjectives will be closely considered in the main part of this thesis.

The purpose of the given thesis work is considered to be the exploration of the main commonalities and differences between linguistic peculiarities of adverbs and adjectives.

The aim of the given thesis work has defined the following tasks:

- to make a research in the sphere of English grammar in order to define various linguistic views referring to the notion of adjectives and adverbs.
- to provide linguistic analysis of morphological characteristics of adverbs and adjectives.
- to define commonalities and differences between syntactical and semantical characteristics of adverbs and adjectives.
- to provide a practical research of classification and usage of adverbs and adjectives.

The object of research of the given thesis work is considered to be various grammatical sources of the English language, linguistic views of scholars as well as works of different linguists in the sphere of the English grammar.

The subject of research of the given work is the adverb and the adjective, their classification and usage.

The practical value of this work is that it can serve as a manual for the learners of English grammar, can help to distinguish adverbs from adjectives and escape some confusing cases in the usage of adverbs and adjectives among non-native speakers of the English.

While making our research we referred to the works of such scholars, as Otto Jespersen, M. Y. Blokh, B. A. Ilyish, I. P. Krylova & E. M. Gordon, G. Leech & J. Svartvik, R. Rittman, Michael Swan and many others.

Concerning to **the method of investigation** we tried to combine analysis, interpretation and comparative methods in order to fulfill the aim of this thesis work in the most suitable way.

Thus, the present thesis consists of an introduction part, two main chapters, each of which has three subchapters and a conclusion. The first chapter provides the theoretical views of adverbs and adjectives. In the first part of this chapter we investigate the notion of adverbs and adjectives and their categorical relationship and differences. The second part provides linguistic analysis of degrees of comparison of adverbs and adjectives, i.e. their morphological characteristics and some aspects of morphological composition. The third part of this chapter describes the main syntactic functions of adverbs and adjectives and their classification according to the semantic meaning.

The next chapter shows some practical research. The first subchapter identifies a few special structural types of adverbs and develops an analysis of different positional characteristics of adverbs and adjectives in a sentence. The second part of this chapter defines the notion of substantivized adjectives as well as the most important grammatical aspects of this point of grammar. Finally, the third part points out several common errors which may occur in the usage of adverbs and adjectives among non-native speakers of English.

Chapter I. Adverbs and adjectives as parts of speech and their comparative grammatical peculiarities.

1.1 English adjectives and adverbs: categorical relationship and differences.

In order to define the relationship or any differences between English adjectives and adverbs, it is necessary to determine the notion of adjectives and adverbs. There are various interpretations referring to the notion of adverbs and adjectives.[1]

M. Y. Blokh states that "the adjective expresses the categorical semantics of property of a substance"[2], i.e. the adjective used in a sentence assumes some relationship with the noun which it relates to. Consequently, it is possible to infer that an adjective relates to various features of nouns, such as colors, states, materials and so on.

Besides, the author claims that "adjectives do not possess a full nominative value"[3]. Indeed, if we consider adjectives, such as *handsome, delicious, broad,* as separate words we will see that they do not possess any independent nominations and can be used together with nouns only, depicting *who is handsome, what is delicious or broad.*

In contrast, an adverb is defined as a word expressing "either the degree of a property, or the property of an action, or the circumstances under which an action takes place"[4]. However, this definition fails to indicate the relationship between adverbs and adjectives.

Blokh defines an adverb "as a notional word expressing a non-substantive property, that is, a property of a non-substantive referent"[5].

So, viewing this definition, it is possible to find the actual mutual connection between the adverb and the adjective, since, as it was mentioned above, the adjective is a word which shows semantics of property of a substance.

Properties, according to Blokh, may be of an "organic" order, i.e. more particular, or of an "inorganic order", i.e. more general. "Of the organic properties, the adverb denotes those

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[1] M. Y. Blokh, B. A. Ilyish, I. P. Krylova & E. M. Gordon, G. Leech & J. Svartvik, O. Jespersen, R. Rittman

[2] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 220

[3] M. Y. Blokh, 220

[4] B. A. Ilyish, *The structure of Modern English* (Moscow: Prosvesenie, 1965), 152

[5] M. Y. Blokh, 238

characterizing processes and other properties, whereas of the inorganic properties, the adverb denotes various circumstantial characteristics of processes or whole situations built around processes"[6].

I. P. Krylova and E. M. Gordon give the following definition of adjectives: "Adjectives are words expressing properties and characteristics of objects and, hence, qualifying nouns"[7]. The same authors name adverbs as "miscellaneous class of words"[8] and point out that they are not easy to define. Indeed, some adverbs resemble pronouns, such as *here, there, then, where.* Others have some commonalities with prepositions, namely, such adverbs, as *about, since, in, before, over*. Besides, there are so many adverbs that are derived from adjectives, such as *slowly, remarkably, seriously*, etc., which create some difficulties in their usage.

Blokh distinguish adjectives "by a specific combinability with nouns which they modify, by a combinability with link-verbs, both functional and notional, and by a combinability with modifying adverbs".[9]

Krylova and Gordon distinguish the main characteristic features of adjectives, such as syntactical functions of attribute and predicative, ability of taking of adverbial modifiers and the degrees of comparison, which are considered to be their only grammatical category.

It is worth noting that their taking of adverbial modifier of degree do not distinguish adjectives form adverbs, since most adverbs also serve "to modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs in the sentence".

Furthermore, it is well known that adjectives as well as adverbs do not change for number and case, therefore the last feature stated by Krylova and Gordon, namely, that the only grammatical category of adjective is the degree of comparison, is the same with that of the adverbs.

G. Leech and J. Svartvik distinguish two typical functions of adverbs:[10]

1) as adverbials

[6] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 238
[7] I. P. Krylova, E. M. Gordon, *A Grammar of present-day English practical course* (Moscow: Universitet Knijniy Dom, 2006), 330
[8] I. P. Krylova, E. M. Gordon, 390
[9] M. Y. Blokh, 220
[10] Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, *A communicative grammar of English* (London: Longman, 2002), 182

2) as modifier of adjectives, adverbs or a number of other constructions

A less common function is as a complement of a preposition.

O. Jespersen states that "things" denoted by substantives are characterized by several qualities which cannot all be expressly indicated in the name itself, but that "a qualifying adjective serves to single out one quality, which may be ascribed to several things".[11] Adverbs, according to Jespersen, generally "serve to modify or specify some word or the sentence as a whole". He includes adverbs into general group of particles. On the other hand he distinguishes prepositions, coordinating and subordinating conjunctions and also combines them into the common group of particles with adverbs. However, it can be considered as a contradiction in Jespersen's system. In the well-known theory of three ranks an adverb takes the position of the second level of subordination ("tertiary"), sometimes it takes the position of the first level of subordination ("secondary"), which cannot be refer to prepositions and conjunctions.

Thus, Jespersen takes the phrase *terribly cold weather* and considers the word weather as, grammatically, most important, "to which the two others are subordinate". Consequently, w*eather* is determined or defined by *cold,* and *cold* in its turn similarly determined or defined by *terribly*. Thus he displays his theory of three ranks, where the word "weather" is primary, "cold" is secondary, and "terribly" is tertiary in this combination. In other words, he finds a substantive as primary, an adjective as secondary, and "a particle" (an adverb) as tertiary. According to Jespersen, there is a definite correlation between three word-classes mentioned, as "substantives, adjectives and adverbs habitually stand in this relation to one another". On the other hand, he claims that "the two things, word-classes and ranks, really move in two different spheres" and "in some combinations a substantive may be secondary or tertiary, an adjective may be a primary, etc."

Furthermore, Jespersen argues that in order to find out what class a word belongs to, it is not enough to consider its form in itself and the main role plays the way in which the word in connected speech "behaves" towards other words, and in which other words behave towards it.

R. Rittman defines an adjective as "a grammatical category which modulates the meaning of nouns by emphasizing important or surprising properties of a noun being modified".[12] The author

[11] Otto Jespersen, *Essentials of English Grammar* (London: Routledge, 2006), 38

[12] Robert John Rittman, *Automatic Discrimination of Genres: the role of adjectives and adverbs as suggested by linguistics and psychology* (The State University of New Jersey, 2007), 23

views the adjectives as "indicators of judgment or opinion". In considering adverbs he states that "adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, and noun phrases".

Consequently, referring to these views it is possible to draw a conclusion that adjectives and adverbs are complementary types of modifier, since an adjective modifies a noun, and an adverb is considered to be a modifier of an adjective, a verb, or one more adverb.

However, some grammarians do not agree with the complementarity claim, by noting that "there are a number of environments where both adverbs and adjectives can occur".[13] Thus, John Payne et al. define an adjective as a pre-head modifier of nouns, whereas an adverb as a pre-head modifier of verbs. According to the authors, any item which can appear after a determiner and before a noun may be considered as belong to the "adjective distributional core"; and any item which can appear after a subject and before a verb may be considered as belong to the "adverb distributional core." Thus, John Payne et al. view that all attributive adjectives are included in the distributional core of adjectives, and those adverbs that are formed from adjectives by the suffix –ly, are included in the distributional core of adverbs.

Furthermore, John Payne et al. are opposed to the single category claim, the notion that adverbs are just inflectional forms of adjectives, and that thus adjectives and adverbs are included to the single major category. In order to support their view, they conclude the following arguments:

1) The semantic basis of the core of the adjective and adverb classes is different
2) There is a marginal overlap lexically between the most frequent adverbs and adjectives
3) The majority of frequent adjectives do not have manner adverb counterparts in –ly
4) The semantic role of –ly is very diverse
5) The most frequent adjectives and adverbs are morphologically simple.

J. C. Nesfield claims that in order "to parse" an adverb it is important to show four different things about it.[14] First, it is necessary to show what kind it is, whether simple, relative or interrogative. Then, if it is simple, in what degree of comparison it is, whether positive, comparative or superlative. At last, what its use is, whether attributive or predicative; and if attributive what word it qualifies.

Similarly, in order "to parse" an adjective, according to Nesfield, it is important to show three different things about it. First, it is necessary to define what kind it is, whether proper,

[13] Joyn Payne, Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey K. Pullum, *The distribution and category status of adjectives and adverbs* (*Word Structure* 3, no. 1, 2010), 33
[14] J. C. Nesfield, *Outline of English Grammar* (London: Macmillan and co, limited, 1918), 107

descriptive, quantitative, numeral, demonstrative, interrogative or distributive. Then, in what degree it is, whether positive, comparative or superlative and whether it is used attributively or predicatively, and if attributively, what word it qualifies.

According to this view, we would conclude that it is possible to include both adjectives and adverbs to a single category claim, since they have a lot in common. Both of them have no changes in number as well as in case and, as it has been mentioned above, the only grammatical category is their degrees of comparison. Moreover, according to some views, they both function in a sentence either attributively or predicatively. Besides, nouns, verbs and other parts of speech used in a sentence are unchangeable since their change may lead to the change of meaning. However, it is possible to paraphrase the sentence contained an adjective with the same sentence, but using the corresponding adverb without any changes in the meaning. In order to prove this view we might consider the following examples:

e.g. My father is a *careful driver*.

My father *drives carefully*.

As it is seen, the meaning of these two sentences is the same. However, they differ from each other according to their structure. So, in the first example the noun *driver* is modified by the adjective *careful*, i.e. adjective serves as a modifier of the noun, whereas in the second the verb *drive* is modified by the adverb *carefully*, i.e. adverb is used as a modifier of the verb.

1.2 Morphological characteristics, comparatives of adverbs and adjectives (linguistic analysis)

In the English language an adjective and an adverb is marked out primarily by their semantic and syntactic characteristics, which will be comprehensively observed below. However, morphological characteristics of these parts of speech direct the attention of grammarians mainly by their degrees of comparison. Before beginning to examine this grammatical peculiarity of adverbs and adjectives it is worth paying attention to their morphological composition.

Having analyzed different grammar sources we may define that, according to morphological composition, adjectives are subdivided into simple, derivative and compound adjectives.

Simple adjectives consist of only a root and have neither prefixes nor prefixes, such as *clever, hard, nice, red, black, smart, fresh,* etc.

Derivative adjectives are those which have derivative elements or morphemes – prefixes and suffixes, such as *doubtful, careless, comfortable, unreasonable, hopeless,* etc. As it is seen, they are morphologically recognized.

Kaushanskaya *et al* divide adjective-forming suffixes into productive: *less (friendless), like (childlike), ish (foolish) and unproductive: -ful (careful), -ible (responsible), -able (reliable), -ant (important), -ent (dependent), -en (woollen), -ous (dangerous), -some (troublesome).* Productive adjective-forming prefixes are: *un- (unhappy), pre- (prewar)*. The unproductive prefix of the adjective is *in- (incorrect)*.

There are some morphemes which form the adjectives differ from one another. These adjectives are: *historic – historical, economic – economical, gold – golden*.

For instance, if we consider the adjective *historic* we will see that it has two meanings: 1) having an important historical significance (*a historic event, a historic battle, a historic decision*), 2) having a long history (*a historic tradition, a historic building*). In contrast, historical means be relevant to the real historical facts, events and individuals.

e.g. We saw several interesting *historic* places.

She likes reading *historical* novels.

Then, we can consider some adjectives ending with *–ing* and *–ed,* such as *interest – interesting, interested.*

Adjectives ending with *–ing* have the meaning of impression made by the fact or event:

e.g. Yesterday's meeting was *interesting*.

Adjectives ending with *–ed* describe the reaction of a person to some event:

e.g. He seemed *interested.*

The most popular pairs of such adjectives are: *exciting – excited, boring – bored, irritating – irritated, tiring – tired, surprising – surprised, frightening – frightened, depressing – depressed, convincing – convinced, astonishing – astonished.*

It is important to show also some suffixes forming the negative form of adjectives, such as *–less (childless, helpless, hopeless),* and prefixes making the same, such as *un- (uncomfortable, unforgetable), in- (inaccurate, inadequate), il-* before the letter *l (illegal, illiterate), im-* before the letters *m or p (impatient, impolite), -ir* before the letter *-r (irregular, irresistible), dis- (dissatisfied, disobedient).*

In addition, the last subdivision of adjectives according to their morphological composition is compound adjectives, built from two or more stems. The main types of compound adjectives, referring to some sources are:[15]

1) Adverb + adjective: *highly-respectable*
2) Adverb + participle II: *well-organized*
3) Adverb + participle I: *slow-moving*
4) Adjective + adjective denoting color: *silvery-green*
5) Adjective + adjective: *infinite-dimensional*
6) Adjective + participle II: *clean-shaven*
7) Adjective + participle I: *funny-looking*
8) Noun + adjective: *life-long*
9) Noun + participle II: *king-sized*
10) Noun + participle I: *eye-catching*

[15] Нагорная А. В. *Английские прилагательные и наречия* (Москва: Айрис Пресс, 2013), 32

11) Adjective + noun: *long-distance*
12) Participle + adverbial particle: *left-over*.

While considering morphological composition of adverbs we defined that adverbs are divided into simple and derived.

There are few simple adverbs. They are those which have no endings showing that they are adverbs: *so, how, now, here, there, then, quite, why* and etc.

Derived adverbs are those which derive from other parts of speech either by composition or derivation. Most of them derived from qualitative adjectives by means of the suffix –ly, such as *slowly, quickly*, -ways (*crossways*), -wards (*afterwards*), -wise (clockwise).

Some rarer adverbs are formed by adding the suffix –ly to the stems of participles, such as *meaningly, decidedly, or nouns, such as partly, bodily*.

There are also some compound adverbs, such as *at least, at most, anyhow, sometimes, nowhere,* etc.

Some scholars refer to the compound adverbs such phrases as *from outside, till now, before then,* etc. However, referring to Blokh, such phrases differ from the above mentioned ones. "Their parts are semantically not mixed into an indivisible lexemic unity and present combinations of a preposition with an adverbial substantive, which can be defined as a word occupying an intermediary lexico-grammatical status between the noun and the adverb."[16]

Besides, the author claims that "there are some other structural types of adverbs which are derivationally connected with the words of non-adverbial lexemic classes by conversion".[17] To these Blokh includes both "adverbs of full notional value" and "adverbs of half-notional value".

The characteristic peculiarity of some adverbs, such as *late, close, high, fast, hard, etc.* according to the scholar, is the possibility of having a corresponding form in –ly. Besides, in this case both elements of each pair have the differences in meaning:

e.g. *to study hard – hardly to study at all, to speak silent – to criticize silently*, etc.

[16] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 241
[17] M. Y. Blokh, 242

To the adverbs with the adjective-stem Blokh also refers some words, such as *weekly, timely, daily*, etc.

In addition there are some qualitative adverbs which have the same form as their corresponding qualitative adjectives, such as *fast, early, lively, daily, late, hard, long, far, low, well*, etc.

Coming to morphological characteristics of adjectives and adverbs, obviously, the only way of morphological change is forming of degrees of comparison. Having investigated this question we defined that some grammar sources find out three degrees of comparison, whereas others distinguish only two. So, how many degrees of comparison do the English adjectives and adverbs have? This issue has been considered by Ilyish who has wondered that "if we take three forms of an English adjective, such as large, larger, (the) largest, shall we say that they are, all three of them, degrees of comparison?".[18] These three degrees of comparison are termed as positive, comparative and superlative forms. However, in our view, we should discern only two degrees of comparison, comparative and superlative. Evidently, the positive form is the plain stem of an adjective (*clever, new, pleasant, big, thin, polite,* etc.). The adjective in the positive may express an equal degree by means of the conjunction *as…as*.

e.g. "I wrote her a letter almost *as soon as* I was housed at Dover…" (Dickens).

To form the negative sentence of the same usage *not so…as* is used:

e.g. He's…*not so pleasant as* he might be. (Dickens).

If we, according to Ilyish, define degree of comparison as "a form expressing comparison of one object with another", we will see that the positive degree is a basic form, it does not express any comparison, does not have any features of comparison and, therefore, cannot be considered as a degree of comparison.

Thus, "there are two degrees of comparison: the comparative and the superlative, in contrast to which the adjective expressing the simple quality without comparison is said to be in the positive degree".[19]

[18] B. A. Ilyish, *The structure of Modern English* (Moscow: Prosvesenie, 1965), 63
[19] A. Ganshina, N. M. Vasilevskaya, *English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1964), 82

The same view is given by Jespersen: "From a formal point of view we have two degrees of comparison in adjectives and adverbs, namely, comparative and superlative".[20]

So, first we would like to consider some peculiarities of the degrees of comparison of adjectives.

The notion of the comparative and the superlative degrees is given by Blokh as follows: "The comparative form has the feature of restricted superiority which limits the comparison of two elements only, whereas the superlative degree form has the feature of unrestricted superiority".[21]

"The ability of the adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character, whereas a relative adjective is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition".[22]

On the other hand, Blokh points out two common cases of contradiction which can occur in substantial speech. First, there are some substances possessing such qualities which make it impossible to connect them with the degrees of comparison. Consequently, adjectives which have these qualities may not form degrees of comparison. These adjectives are *extinct, deaf, final, immobile, fixed,* etc.

Referring to Kaushanskaya *et al*, some qualitative adjectives such as *greenish, darkish, incurable, chief principal* also have no degrees of comparison. The qualitative adjective *little* has no degrees of comparison, normally instead of it *smaller* and *smallest* are used.

Jespersen while explaining the degrees of comparison points out that "they represent a graduated scale, as if *old-older-oldest* formed a progression, like the numbers 1:2:3".[23] At the same time he states that the superlative does not point out superiority in comparing with the comparative in common use, and just expresses the same degree. However, we look at them from a disparate attitude. So, if we refer to this point of view and compare the following sentences we will see the possibility of stating the same in two various ways:

e.g. She is *cleverer* than other children in her family.

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[20] Otto Jespersen, *Essentials of English Grammar* (London: Routledge, 2006),170
[21] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 230
[22] M. Y. Blokh, 222
[23] Otto Jespersen, *A Modern English Grammar on historical principles.* Part VII Syntax. (London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd), 392

She is the *cleverest* child.

If we consider this case, we will see that the result is the same, but in first case it is given relating to the other children, whereas in the second case relating to all the children of this family.

Commonly, the comparative is followed by the conjunction *than*.

e.g. "…wavy eyebrows *darker than* they should have been…" (Galsworthy).

A superlative may be used after *any* or *no*:

e.g. *on any nicest* day.

It is worth noting that as adjectives in the superlative degree suggest restriction, they ought to be used with the definite article *the*:

e.g. *The eldest,* a fair-haired English boys, lingers…(Galsworthy).

It is must be noted that the superlative without article also may be used. It is more frequent in literary style rather than in conversation.

e.g. With *best* wishes, Yours…

Besides, when the adjective expresses a superior degree of quality and does not compare with the other object the missing of article *the* is possible as well:

e.g. My childhood was *happiest*.

Jespersen also claims that "the comparative does not mean a higher degree of the quality in question than the positive does in itself"[24]. For instance, we way consider the sentence "My brother is older than me", which does not mean that my brother is old. The comparative *older* in this case has less degree than the positive *old* would have in "My brother is old". In addition, it does not say anything about he's being old. So, if we mean this we should say "My brother is still older than me."

Another issue that must be discussed is how we form the degrees of comparison of adjectives. According to some grammarians, there are three ways of formation of degrees of

[24] Otto Jespersen, *A Modern English Grammar on historical principles.* Part VII Syntax. (London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd), 392

comparison. They are follows: "synthetic, analytic, and suppletive".[25] The synthetic way is characterized with adding the suffix -er for comparative degree, and -est for superlative.

The subsequent adjectives form their degrees of comparison by adding the suffix –er and –est:

1) All adjectives of one syllable: *long-longer-longest, big-bigger-biggest, fast-faster-fastest*.
2) Adjectives of two syllables ending in -y, -er, -ow, -ble: *happy-happier-happiest, clever-cleverer-cleverest, narrow-narrower-narrowest, able-abler-ablest*.
3) Adjectives of two syllables which have the stress on the last syllable: *complete-completer-completest, concise-conciser-concisest*.

In contrast, polysyllabic adjectives form their degrees of comparison by putting *more* and *most* before the adjective: *famous-more famous-most famous, successful-more successful-most successful*. More may mean "a greater number of (people)" and most "the greatest number of (people)."

It is also possible to use *more* when the same person or thing is compared at various times and the comparison is not between two persons or things:

e.g. Every single day he becomes a year *more old*.

Moreover, when we compare two qualities of the same person, there can also be used *more:*

e.g. Our teacher is *more strict than kind*.

Besides, some adjectives form their degrees of comparison irregularly, i.e. from another root. (g*ood– better – best, bad – worse – worst, little – less – least, many – more – most, etc).* They are considered as suppletive degrees of comparison to the analogous adjectives.

As it is well known some adjectives normally do not form degrees of comparison. So, according to Ilyish, it depends on semantic factor. "Since degrees of comparison express a difference of degree in the same property, only those adjectives may form degrees of comparison

[25] Н. А. Кобрина и др, *Грамматика английского языка: Морфология. Синтаксис*. (Санкт-Петербург: издательство «Союз», 2006), 233

which denote properties capable to occur in different degrees".[26] Among these, adjectives such as *blind, deaf, dead, middle,* might be mentioned.

So, these adjectives can be classified into four groups. "Limiting qualitative adjectives indicate or determine the type of things or persons, such as *precious, middle, left, childless, medical, dead,* etc.; relative adjectives, such as *earthen, ashen, woolen, wooden, flaxen*; latin origin adjectives which have comparative and superlative meaning, such as *inner, minimal, junior, former, senior, prior, upper, superior, optimal, proximal, etc.;* adjectives already denoting some gradation of quality, such as *darkish, greenish, etc.*" [27]

Coming to adverbs it is seen that those adverbs which have the –ly form in the positive often have the base form in the comparative and the superlative.

"Qualitative adverbs derived from corresponding qualitative adjectives may have degrees of comparison".[28] Normally, adverbs similar to adjectives with more than two syllables usually form their degrees of comparison by putting the words *more* and *most* before the adverb.

e.g. …the silence gradually deepened, and was *more and more* rarely broken, save by a rush of wind or sweep of rain. (Dickens).

Only a few one syllable adverbs, similar to adjectives, may add *–er* in the comparative, and *–est* in the superlative: *hard-harder-hardest, long-longer-longest, low-lower-lowest*.

All other adverbs are formed by placing *more* and *most* before them.

Likewise irregular adjectives, some adverbs also have irregular forms of comparison: *well – better – best, badly – worse – worst, much – more – most, little – less – least, near – nearer – nearest, next, far – farther, further – farther, furthest, late – later – latest, last.*

It must be noted that the second form of comparison, such as *next, further, last* has a special meaning and these words can be considered as a different word.

However, there are also some adverbs which stand beyond the degrees of comparison. Pronominal adverbs denoting place and time (*here, there, sometimes),* adverbs denoting manner

[26] B. A. Ilyish, *The structure of Modern English* (Moscow: Prosvesenie, 1965), 63
[27] Н. А. Кобрина и др, *Грамматика английского языка: Морфология. Синтаксис*. (Санкт-Петербург: издательство «Союз», 2006), 235
[28] A. Ganshina, N. M. Vasilevskaya, *English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1964), 306

(*somehow, thus)* and adverbs of manner denoting gradation (*minimally, optimally)* could be mentioned among these adverbs.

So, as it is clearly seen, adverbs and adjectives have the similar formation of the degrees of comparison.

After these considerations it is worth looking into the meaning of these degrees of comparison. According to Jespersen "if we compare two persons or things in regard to some quality, we find three possibilities: superiority: *more dangerous (better) than*, equality: *as dangerous (as good) as*, inferiority: *less dangerous (less good) than*".[29]

Obviously, the first and third point out "inequality" and require *than*, whereas the second requires *as* before the second element of comparison. However it must be noted that comparisons with *less* do not used very often; instead of *less dangerous than*, we often say *not so dangerous as*, and when, for instance, there are two opposite adjectives, we say, *smaller than* rather than *less big than*.

Jespersen also states that some adjectives and adverbs, such as *several, half, daily, own, future*, are incapable to form degrees of comparison according to their meaning. Since others are seemed incapable to function as the comparative or superlative, they are used in a "slightly modified meaning": *more perfect* and *most perfect* really mean "nearer and nearest to perfection." The same can be said about the words *fuller, fullest*.

So, as it is clearly seen, there are two degrees of comparison in adjectives and adverbs, namely, comparative and superlative. The common way of forming them for adjectives is by adding the endings *-er* and *-est* to the ground form, which is called positive, whereas adverbs generally form their degrees of comparison by means of the words *more* and *most*. Similarly, some adjectives, as a rule, form their degrees by placing *more* and *most* before them. This feature is the only morphological characteristic of both adverbs and adjectives.

[29] Otto Jespersen, *Essentials of English Grammar* (London: Routledge, 2006), 174

1.3 Syntactical and semantical commonalities and differences between adverbs and adjectives

According to all grammar sources, adjectives and adverbs could have various functions in the sentences. In order to define some commonalities or differences between these functions, we have to consider them separately.

Generally, most grammar sources classify only attributive (acting as premodifiers of nouns) and a predicative (acting as complements of verbs) functions. I. P. Krylova and E. M. Gordon offer broader classification and state that "adjectives may serve in the sentence as an attribute, a predicative, a part of compound verbal predicate, an objective predicative, a subjective predicative and an adverbial modifier". [30]

So, according to Krylova and Gordon adjectives may serve in the sentence as an attribute:

e.g. She had *beautiful blue* eyes and *long curly* hair.

In this case adjectives come before nouns. Normally, there is no any other word between the adjective and the noun and they are closely attached to their head-words. They are called close attributes.

e.g. a *good* speaker

However, if an adjective does not give a characteristic to its noun but refers to the temporary state or condition, it is defined as a loose (or detached – according to other grammarians) attribute.

e.g. *Pleasant* and *amusing*, she looked as well as she could.

Thus, in the first example the adjective and that noun which it modifies form a group, whereas in the second example the adjective forms a group which is detached from the noun and the other parts of the sentence.

Loose attributes may be put in various positions in the sentences:

e.g. *Nervous*, the woman opened the door.

The woman, *nervous*, opened the door.

[30] I. P. Krylova, E. M. Gordon, *A Grammar of present-day English practical course* (Moscow: Universitet Knijniy Dom, 2006), 339-341

The woman opened the door, *nervous*.

As it is seen from the above-cited examples, after a loose or detached attributes there should be put a comma in order to separate them from other the parts of the sentence. The meaning of these sentences can be interpreted as "The woman who was nervous, opened the door."

Adjectives may also serve as a predicative:

e.g.His smile was *nice*.

She was not *aware* of what happened in the street.

Adjectives used predicatively refer to a temporary condition rather than to a permanent characteristic.

e.g. He was *ill*.

The child was *awake*.

Besides, adjectives may be used as part of a compound verbal predicate:

e.g. He stood *tired*, with his head bent to his shoulders

Then, they may serve as an objective predicative (She pushed the door *opened)* and a subjective predicative (The door was open *wide).*

Some scholars state more detailed classification of subjective and objective predicatives by showing adjectives with the prefix –a, such as *alive, awake, aware, asleep, afraid*, etc. "When they are used as attributes, they follow their head-nouns, thus preserving their predicative character".[31]

e.g. He was *asleep* in the dining-room.

Finally, adjectives may be used as adverbial modifiers:

e.g. *Whether right or wrong*, the man ought to be treated fairly.

If possible, the child should be given the medicine three times a day.

[31] A. Ganshina, N. M. Vasilevskaya, *English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1964), 79

Krylova and Gordon claim that adjectives used adverbially are all introduced by conjuctions. However, it is possible to define this function of the adjective simply as adjective modified by an adverb which has the syntactical function of an adverbial modifier to the adjective.

It is also mentioned that the adjectives *ill* and *well* are not used attributively in Modern English, they have the only function of a predicative.

Referring to Greenbaum and Nelson adjectives may be divided into three classes in accordance with their function. So, used alone or with one or more modifiers, an adjective can serve as a pre-modifier of a noun, subject complement and object complement.

The authors also state that adjectives are "attributive (attributing a quality to what is denoted by a noun) when they are being used as pre-modifier, whereas they are predicative (part of the predicate) when they are being used as complements".[32]

They classify some adjectives as "central adjectives" and argue that these adjectives may be used in all three functions:

1. This is a *calm* sea. attributive
2. The sea is *calm*. predicative
3. I looked at him *calm*. predicative

According to Greenbaum and Nelson, the words, such as *clever*, *brave*, *hungry*, *noisy* are also central adjectives. Besides, they show those adjectives which are considered to be only attributive:

e.g. That is *sheer* nonsense. This was the *main* book I was looking for.

Other examples include: *chief*, *very*, *utter*.

On the other hand, there are many words which are limited with the specific meanings. For instance, *old* is only attributive in the following example:

e.g. This woman is an *old* friend of mine. (in this case the word *old* denotes "a friend for many years")

However, it is considered as a central adjective in:

e.g. He is an *old* man. To my mind he is *old*. My son considers me *old*.

Then, there are some adjectives which are considered to be predicative only:

e.g. I am really *afraid* of mice. He was so *glad* that she was there with him.

[32] Sidney Greenbaum, Gerald Nelson, *An introduction to English Grammar* (Great Britain: Pearson education ltd, 2002), 95

Besides, "some predicative adjectives must be followed by a post-modifier, such as *aware* (*of* + noun phrase), *loath* (*to* + infinitive), *subject* (*to* + noun phrase)".[33]

Nesfield states that "an adjective is used attributively, when it directly qualifies a noun or pronoun and predicatively, when it is a part of a predicate and qualifies the subject or object of the verb indirectly".[34] In addition, he notes, that in poetry and sometimes in prose, an adjective can be used to qualify a verb, as if it were an adverb.

According to some grammar sources, some adjectives can only be used in attributive position, such as my *former* friend, an *occasional* visitor, the *late* president. Others are derived from nouns: *criminal law*, a *medical* school.

If we consider predicative adjectives more detailed we will define that adjectives can be used predicatively as subject complement after linking verbs, like *be, seem, look, feel*:

e.g. I feel *awful* this morning.

Or as object complement after verbs like *consider, believe, find*:

e.g. We found this place absolutely *pleasant*.

The adjectives like *awful, delightful, uncertain, easy and foolish* can be used both attributively and predicatively, some group of adjectives may be used merely in predicative function. These adjectives are defined by Leech and Svartvik as "health adjectives".[35]

e.g. She feels *ill*. He looked *well*.

Another group proposed by Leech is those of adjectives followed by phrases or clauses:

e.g. She is *ready* to look after him.

Most of the students were *present* in a class.

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[33] Sidney Greenbaum, Gerald Nelson, *An introduction to English Grammar* (Great Britain: Pearson education ltd, 2002), 96

[34] J. C. Nesfield, *Outline of English Grammar* (London: Macmillan and co, limited, 1918), 95

[35] Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, *A communicative grammar of English,* (London: Longman, 2002), 173

Considering adverbs we would mention that adverbs may have different functions in the sentences and may modify different types of words, phrases or sentences. The main syntactical function of the adverb in the sentence stated in all grammar sources is that of an adverbial modifier. Thus, an adverb may be connected with a verb, an adjective or another adverb. Further, we will consider all these cases more detailed. However, first it is worth showing the following view.

Thus, Nesfield distinguish two uses of adverbs in a sentence, similarly to adjectives, attributive and predicative. He states, that an adverb is used attributively, when it directly qualifies some adjective, verb, preposition, conjunction or another adverb:

e.g. This boy is *remarkably clever* (Adjective)

A snake *moves silently* through the grass (Verb)

His cleverness is *decidedly above* the average (Preposition)

He is despised *merely because* he is poor (Conjunction)

He sings *unusually* well (Adverb)

Furthermore he notes that an adverb sometimes can be used to qualify a noun, such as "the *down* train", "the *up* journey". However it is used rarely and such examples may be said that the adverb is used as an adjective.

An adverb is used predicatively, according to Nesfield, when it is a part of a predicate, i.e. it is a complement to some verb:

e.g. The holidays are *over*.

As it has been noted above, the main function of adverbs in a sentence is its function as adverbial. Leech and Svartvik view that "adverbials usually tell something extra about the action, happening, or state described by the rest of the sentence".[36] For instance, it can be the time when it happened, the place where it happened, or the manner in which it happened.

[36] Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, *A communicative grammar of English* (London: Longman, 2002), 177

Krylova and Gordon state that "when the adverbs modify verbs, they can serve as adverbial modifiers of time, frequency, place, manner and degree".[37] In other words, when connected with a verb the adverb characterizes the quality or manner of the action, the circumstances in which it takes place, etc.

e.g. She was *then* only 5 years old. (time)

I *rarely* go to the museum. (frequency)

He went back *inside*. (place)

She loves me *passionately*. (degree)

The mother holds her daughter *tightly*. (manner)

Leech and Svartvik divide time adverbials into three classes according to their meaning: adverbials denoting time-when, duration and frequency.

Then, they distinguish two groups of time-when adverbials:

1) Denoting a point or period of time
   e.g. The meeting starts *tomorrow*.
2) Denoting a point of time but also implying the point from which that time is measured
   e.g. They had an accident *recently*.

Time duration adverbials denote length of time or duration from some preceding point of time.

e.g. They have *always* tried to be friendly.

He is *temporarily* out of work.

Time frequency adverbials are divided into two groups:

1) Those denoting definite frequency:
   e.g. Committee meetings take place *weekly*.

2) Those denoting indefinite frequency:

[37] I. P. Krylova, E. M. Gordon, *A Grammar of present-day English practical course* (Moscow: Universitet Knijniy Dom, 2006), 398

e.g. He *generally* leaves home at seven in the morning.

Examples of adverbs denoting indefinite frequency are: *ever, frequently, never, occasionally, often, seldom, usually, normally, regularly, sometimes, regularly, etc.*

It is also worth noting that some adverbs of time function in various syntactical samples. For instance, the adverb *already* is used in affirmative sentences, whereas *yet* – in questions and in negative sentences.

e.g. We have *already* finished.

Have they finished *yet*?

They have not finished *yet*.

However, when the sentence has some elements of surprise the adverb *already* may occur in questions and in negative sentences too.

e.g. Have you finished *already*? (means that the speaker is surprised that he has already finished).

In the same way an adverb *still* is used in affirmative sentences, whereas *anymore* in negative sentences.

e.g. She *still* works for a large company.

She does not work there *anymore.*

Another syntactical function of the adverb is being adverbial modifiers to the adjective or another adverb. "When adverbs modify adjectives or other adverbs, they serve as adverbial modifiers of degree."[38] The modifying adverb usually considered as an intensifier. In other words, in this case an adverb denotes the degree of the quality expressed by the adjective or adverb. These adverbs are: *terribly, very, awfully, rather, so, utterly, extremely, most, unusually*, etc.

[38] I. P. Krylova, E. M. Gordon, *A Grammar of present-day English practical course* (Moscow: Universitet Knijniy Dom, 2006), 399

Leech and Svartvik define degree adverbs as those which "have a heightening or lowering effect on some part of the sentence".[39] According to the authors they are follows: *definitely, really, thoroughly, entirely, much, scarcely, hardly, nearly, all, rather, completely, simply.*

e.g. He was *entirely* agreed with me.

We are *definitely* going to leave this country.

The same rule can be applied to composite adverbs, such as *a good bit of, kind of, a lot of, sort of,* etc.

e.g. I consider this as a *kind of* magic.

Some adverbs, namely *still, yet, far, much, any* are usually combined with comparative adjectives: *much worse, not any better, still greater*.

Some scholars state that an adverb may modify the nature of the quality expressed by an adjective or adverb only when a qualitative adverb has the meaning of both quality and degree, i.e. a "double meaning". For instance, the summer was *unusually* cool.

Some linguists consider usage of comparative adverbs in "clauses of proportional agreement, that is parallel clauses in which qualities or actions denoted in them increase or decrease at an equal rate".[40] Furthermore, to express this idea the comparative may be reiterated; the two similar forms are connected by *and*:

e.g. She walked *faster* and *faster*.

Besides the adverbial function of adverbs, as it has been mentioned above, they may also serve as modifier of adjectives, adverbs or a number of other constructions.

So, when the adverb modifies an adjective it in general precedes it:

e.g. He is *rather tall* for a ten-year old.

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[39] Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, *A communicative grammar of English* (London: Longman, 2002), 180

[40] Н. А. Кобрина и др, *Грамматика английского языка: Морфология. Синтаксис*. (Санкт-Петербург: издательство «Союз», 2006), 275

Only one adverb, *enough* is placed after its adjective:

e.g. This just is not *good enough*.

An adverb also may premodify another adverb:

e.g. He is smoking *rather heavily* these days.

Similar to adjectives, the only postmodifying adverb is *enough*.

e.g. *Oddly enough*, nothing valuable was stolen.

Moreover, the adverb may modify:

1) a prepositional phrase

e.g. The nail went *right through* the wall.

2) a determiner, pronoun or numeral

e.g. He has *hardly any* friends.

3) a noun phrase. It is worth noting that only a few degree adverbs can modify noun phrases, such as *quite, rather, such* and *what* (in exclamations)

e.g. The place was in *rather* a mess.

In some cases, the adverb may modify a prepositional group, i.e. a noun with preposition used as:

1) An attribute or predicative (functions characteristic of an adjective);
   e.g. "His acquaintance lying *chiefly among ship-chandlers*…" (a predicative) (Dickens); "…and his little blue eyes staring up very *hard from under a troubled*… (an attribute) (Galsworthy)
2) An adverbial modifier (a function characteristic of an adverb)
   e.g. "Ashurst sat down on a twisted tree growing *almost along the ground*…" (adv.mod.)(Galsworthy).

Besides all these functions the adverb may also modify a noun and, thus, has the function of an attribute. However, there are only a few adverbs in English which can be used as attributes modifying nouns. This occurs:

1) When the noun expresses an action: *a step aside, a look back, a movement forward.*
2) When the noun denotes a quality: *he is almost a man* (=almost grown up)

Adverbs may also be used as attributes to other nouns.

e.g. "The trees *overhead* deepened the gloom of the hour… (Hardy).

Some groups of adverbs, namely *viewpoint*, *attitudinal*, and *formulaic* ones, modify whole sentences.

e.g. *Luckily*, I came just in time.

Furthermore, adverbs may be used as a predicative losing in such a case its adverbial meaning and indicating the state of the subject:

e.g. She speaks English so-so (an adverbial modifier of manner). How are you? – I am so-so (a predicative).

It is important to note that there are some adverbs which are used to connect the components of compound sentences or the clauses in complex sentences. At the same time they preserve their adverbial meaning. They are follows:

therefore, so, accordingly, consequently, besides, moreover, likewise, nevertheless, however.

e.g. "A tender young cork, however, would have had no more chance against a pair of corkscrews" (Dickens).

Finally, some place and time adverbs act as complements of prepositions. For instance, among place adverbs, *here* and *there* occur with: *along, around, down, from, in, near, out, over, round, through, up*. *Home* can occur after *at, from, near, toward*. Others are restricted to follow from: *above, abroad, below, downstairs, indoors, inside, outside, within, without*.

e.g. He shouted at me *from downstairs*.

Is anybody *at home*?

Thus, we come to conclusion that adjective may function attributively (modify a noun) and predicatively (modify a verb) in a sentence, whereas an adverb may serve as an adverbial and as a modifier of adjectives, adverbs, and some other constructions.

Semantics (the study of meaning) has been claimed at various times by a variety of disciplines. However, it has been considered as something invaluable and worthless. This opinion has changed in last few years. The study of semantics has become as important and is taken as seriously as the study of syntax.

Classification of adjectives and adverbs is often connected with their semantic characteristics. Therefore, it is important to divide adverbs and adjectives into semantic groups.

According to the opinion of some grammarians semantic basis of the adjective is the concept of quality. Qualitative feature dominates in the meaning of the adjectives. This idea can be proved by further examples: "sad face", "sad incident", "sad mood" and so on.

Thus, the classification of adjectives is different and based on the possibility of intensifying and the compatibility with different types of adverbs. Blokh offers two large subclasses into which all the adjectives are generally divided: qualitative and relative.

"Relative adjectives express such properties of a substance as are determined by the direct relation of the substance to some other substance."[41] In other words, relative adjectives express qualities which describe an object by way of its relation to another object: to materials (*silken, wooden*), to place (*European, African*), to time (*monthly, weekly*), to some action (*preparatory, rotatory*). This definition will be understood from the examples, such as *history – historical event, colour – coloured pencils*, etc. *Historical event* may be revealed as an event relating to a definite period of history.

Actually, in the English language the number of relative adjectives is restricted.

A few relative adjectives are formed from nouns by means of the suffix –en (*wooden, woollen*); some of them are formed from the nouns by the suffix –ly (*daily, motherly*); many relative adjectives are converted from nouns (*silk, gold, cotton*). As it is clearly observed, relative adjectives are closely connected with noun, which lead to the notion of "adjectivized nouns". This notion will be elaborately discussed in the further chapter.

[41] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 222

"Qualitative adjectives, as different from relative ones, denote various qualities of substances which admit of a quantitative estimation, i.e. of establishing their correlative quantitative measure"[42]. In other words, qualitative adjectives denote qualities of colour, size, shape, etc., i.e. those qualities which an object may have in various degrees.

e.g. "...though I am *the youngest*, I am *the tallest*." (Austen).

The measure of a quality, referring to Blokh, can be estimated as "high or low", "adequate or inadequate", "sufficient or insufficient", etc. e.g. an *inconvenient* situation – a very *inconvenient* situation, a *difficult* decision – a too *difficult* decision.

Qualitative adjectives have analogous adverbs derived by adding the suffix –ly, such as *quick – quickly*. They may also have similar forms with adverbs, such as *fast – fast*. On the contrary, relative adjectives do not form adverbs with the suffix –ly.

Kaushanskaya *et al* reveal more detailed notion of qualitative adjectives by showing certain typical suffixes, such as *–ful, -less, -ous, -ent, -able, -y, -ish,* which they may have. These adjectives are: *careful, careless, dangerous, convenient, comfortable*, and so on.

In some cases a relative adjective may obtain the meaning of a qualitative one. For example: a *silver* watch, where *silver* refers to relative adjective; a *silver* stream, where a *silver* is a qualitative adjective.

The relative adjectives, such as *gold, flax, wax, silk* may also acquire qualitative meaning when they are used with the suffix –en: *a gold chain* (relative) – *a golden hair* (qualitative).

Among different linguists Krylova and Gordon distinguish another classification of the adjectives. First they consider adjectives that can be used only attributively.[43] To this group of adjectives he includes the following:

1) Intensifying adjectives, which in turn are divided into emphasizers (giving a general heightening effect): *a clear failure, a definite loss, a real hero, a true scholar, etc.*; amplifiers (denoting a high or extreme degree): *a complete victory, the absolute truth, a*

[42] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 222
[43] I. P. Krylova, E. M. Gordon, *A Grammar of present-day English practical course* (Moscow: Universitet Knijniy Dom, 2006), 332

great scholar, the entire world, etc.; downtoners (having a lowering effect); *a slight misunderstanding, a feeble reason, etc.*

2) Restrictive adjectives (which restrict the reference to the noun exclusively, particularly or chiefly): *the exact answer, the main reason, a particular occasion, the specific point, etc.*
3) Adjectives related to adverbial expressions: *a former friend (formerly a friend), the present leader (the leader at present), the late president (till lately the president), etc.*
4) Adjectives formed from nouns: *a criminal lawyer, an atomic student, a woolen dress, etc*.

Further, Gordon shows adjectives that can be used only predicatively and point out that they refer to a condition than to characterize the noun. The most commonly used predicative adjectives are: *able, conscious, fond, glad, ill, subject, well, ablaze, afloat, afraid, aghast, alight, alike, alive, alone, ashamed, asleep, averse, awake, aware*.

Next, Krylova and Gordon divide adjectives into stative and dynamic and claim that they differ in some ways. For instance, the link-verb *to be* in combination with dynamic adjectives can have the continuous form or be used in the imperative mood (*He is being careful. Be careful.*), whereas stative adjectives do not admit of such forms.

Finally, the authors distinguish gradable and nongradable adjectives. Most adjectives, according to them, are gradable, which means that they may be qualified by adverbs of degree and themselves change for degrees of comparison.

e.g. His nephew is *so (extremely, too, very)* young.

He is *younger* than his sister. He is *the youngest* in their family.

Nesfield distinguishes "Proper, Descriptive, Quantitative, Numeral, Demonstrative, Interrogative and Distributive adjectives".[44]

Thus we can see that the adjective denotes either the qualitative feature of an object or a relative feature denoting the property of an object through its relationship to another object or a feature.

[44] J. C. Nesfield. *Outline of English Grammar (*Macmillan and co, limited. St. Martin's street, London, 1918), 94

In contrast, semantic characteristics of adverbs include many groups in which they may fall. Some linguists state that according to their meaning adverbs fall under two main divisions: "qualifying adverbs and adverbs denoting various circumstances in which an action occurs"[45].

Qualifying adverbs in most cases are formed from adjectives by adding the suffix –ly, except from adverb *well* and some adverbs, such as *fast, low, hard,* homonymous with adjectives.

So, "qualifying adverbs denote the quality of an action, the manner in which an action is performed or give a quantitative characteristic of an action or a quality".[46] These adverbs are very closely connected with the verb, adjective or adverb which they modify.

Qualifying adverbs may be divided into following subclasses:

a) Adverbs which symbolize the quality of an action and called qualitative adverbs. To this group may be included mainly adverbs similar to qualitative adjectives, such as *badly, fluently, slowly, quickly, fast, well,* etc.

e.g. Manson…walked *quickly* down the platform, searching *eagerly* for some sign of welcome. (Cronin).

b) Adverbs symbolizing the manner of performing the action, called adverbs of manner, such as, *upside-down, aloud, how, somehow*. Here may also be included adverbs formed from nouns with prepositions and from phraseological units: *by heart, by chance, in turn, one by one.*

e.g. We shall do it *by turns.* You must learn this poem *by heart.*

It must be noted that qualitative adverbs are traditionally included in the groups of adverbs of manner.

c) Adverbs which symbolize the level of a quality or of the strength of an action and called adverbs of quantity such as *very, quite, almost, entirely, rather, too, enough, little, much, etc*.

e.g. I *hardly* understand even what you mean. (Dickens).

[45] A. Ganshina, N. M. Vasilevskaya, *English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1964), 298-299
[46] A. Ganshina, N. M. Vasilevskaya, 298

Adverbs which denote different conditions in which an action happens (time, place, etc.) are associated with the word to which they refer in a much looser way than qualitative adverbs, adverbs of manner or adverbs of degree.

Adverbs belonging to this group may be classified as follows:

a) Adverbs which symbolize the time of the action, such as *now, then, before, after, today, tomorrow, yesterday, just, already, still, shortly, once, when*, etc.

Adverbs of time are also formed from combinations of nouns (or substantivized adjectives and adverbs) with prepositions and from phraseological units: *at home, at present, at last, before then, by now, up to now, just now, by and by*, etc.

e.g. *Sometimes* she had to climb over high gates… (Eliot.)

b) Adverbs of frequency denoting the frequent repetition of an action, such as *often, never, rarely, seldom, sometimes, always, generally, usually, twice*, etc.

e.g. …he *sometimes* walked with us to show us the boats and ships, and once or twice he took us for a row. (Dickens.)

c) Adverbs symbolizing the place or direction of the action, such as *here, there, within, outside, inside, near, around, past, along, where, nowhere, somewhere, everywhere*, etc.

Similar to adverbs of time adverbs of place are also formed from phraseological units: *back and forth, up and down, to and fro*.

e.g. He walked *to and fro* in the shop and in the little parlour…(Dickens.)

d) The interrogative adverb *why* which serves to denote the cause as well as the purpose of an action.

e.g. Why did not she come? - Because she was ill.

Some grammarians, namely Blokh, Khaimovich, Rogovskaya, along with above mentioned group of adverbs, distinguish a group of quantitative adverbs.

Qualitative: *loudly, quickly, brightly*.

Quantitative: *rather, too, nearly, quite, fully*.

Circumstantial: *yesterday, often, before, upstairs*.

Quantitative adverbs, such as *very, rather* show the degree, quantity of the action and a quality. Combinability of these adverbs is broader than that of qualifying adverbs.

Some grammarians divide these groups into subgroups. Thus, Blokh describes nine groups of quantitative adverbs (words of degree):[47]

1) Adverbs of high degree, which sometimes may be called as intensifiers, such as *quite, entirely, very, greatly, absolutely, strongly, perfectly, pretty, highly*.
2) Adverbs of excessive degree: *too, awfully, tremendously, terrifically, dreadfully*.
3) Adverbs of unexpected degree: *surprisingly, astonishingly, amazingly*.
4) Adverbs of moderate degree: *comparatively, fairly, relatively, rather*.
5) Adverbs of low degree: *a little, a bit, slightly*.
6) Adverbs of approximate degree: *almost, nearly*.
7) Adverbs of optimal degree: *enough, sufficiently, adequately*.
8) Adverbs of inadequate degree: *intolerably, ridiculously, insufficiently*.
9) Adverbs of under-degree: *hardly, scarcely*.

Further, Blokh claims that these quantitative adverbs comprise a particular kind of qualitative words.

Another subdivision made by Blokh is that of circumstantial adverbs, which he divides into notional and functional.

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya besides above mentioned groups of adverbs distinguish two small groups of adverbs:

1) Interrogative and relative adverbs, such as *how, when, where, why*.
2) Connecting adverbs, such as *therefore, however, nevertheless, moreover,* etc.

Kaushanskaya *et al* offer double classification of adverbs: according to their structure and according to their meaning.

[47] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 244

Thus, according to their structure adverbs are divided into simple adverbs (*long, enough, then, there,* etc.); derivative adverbs (*slowly, forward, likewise, headlong,* etc.); compound adverbs (*sometimes, anyhow, nowhere,* etc.); composite adverb (*at once, at last,* etc.).

According to their meaning, referring to Kaushanskaya, adverbs may fall into adverbs of time (*today, tomorrow, soon,* etc.), repetition or frequency (*seldom, never, often, ever, sometimes,* etc.), place and direction (*upstairs, outside, here, inside, there,* etc.), cause and consequence (*therefore, consequently, accordingly,* etc.), manner (*quickly, kindly, hard,* etc.), degree, measure and quantity (*enough, half, too, very, nearly, much, little, hardly, rather, once, quite, twice,* etc.).

Along with these groups, the author distinguishes interrogative adverbs (*where, when, why, how*), used in special questions.

This classification seems the most appropriate since responds to all the criteria of adverb division.

Nesfield describes three types of adverbs: simple, interrogative and relative or conjunctive. However, from the point of view of modern requirements this classification cannot be considered as scientific, since it is based on two different criteria: in the distinguishing of the first group the author considers derivational structure of adverbs, the second and the third group are distinguishing in accordance with the function of the adverb in the sentence.

Gleeson offers the following classification:

1) Emphatic adverbs or preverb adverbs: *always, usually, certainly*.
2) Criteria of second classification, which in turn is subdivided into three groups, is an interrogative word, the response of which is an adverb:
    a) Manner adverbs answer questions containing how: *rapidly, nicely*
    b) Temporal adverbs answer questions containing when: *now, soon, afterwards*
    c) Locative adverbs answer questions containing where: *here, abroad, outside*.

Overall, semantic classification of both adverbs and adjectives is very comprehensive. Different authors offer various classifications. However, we come to conclusion that the semantic peculiarities of these parts of speech make it possible to distinguish different kinds of adverbs and adjectives according to their meaning and the relationship with the other parts of a sentence.

Thus, in the first part of the present chapter we have observed different linguistic views referring to the notion of adverbs and adjectives, as well as their categorical relationship and differences. Now it is possible to draw a conclusion that both adverbs and adjectives are defined as modifiers, since adjectives modify nouns and adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs and some other constructions.

In the second part we have examined the morphological characteristic of both adverbs and adjectives. We have studied morphological composition of adverbs and adjectives, and find that both of them may be simple and derivative. Some adverbs are homonymous with adjectives, i.e. have the same form, whereas others are derived namely from adjectives. Besides, we have considered the degrees of comparison of adverbs and adjectives which have been viewed as their only grammatical category and the main morphological characteristic.

Finally, the third part of this chapter has been dedicated to syntactic and semantic characteristic of these parts of speech, their commonalities and differences. As it has been considered the main syntactic peculiarity of adjectives is their attributive and predicative function in a sentence, while adverbs serve as adverbials and modifiers. Their semantic characteristic is closely connected with the classification of adverbs and adjectives. So, as we have observed, many grammarians offer various semantic groups which lead to distinguish different kinds of adverbs according to their semantic meaning.

Thus, we can claim that we have studied the theoretical view of adverbs and adjectives, and now we may turn to the practical view, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter II. Classification and usage of adverbs and adjectives.

2.1 Positional characteristics of adverbs and adjectives

Word order and the patterns generally used in English written sentences are a very important aspect of the language. Therefore, in this subchapter we will examine the position of adjectives and adverbs in a sentence as well as some structural types of adverbs.

It should be mentioned that classification of adverbs and adjectives has been broadly discussed in the previous chapter. However, we would like to turn to this question in this subchapter since there are some special structural types of adverbs in English which should be observed elaborately as well.

Some scholars, namely Blokh, Ilyish, etc., pay a special attention to some specific groups of the type *go out, come in, put down, set up, bring up,* etc. These groups consist of a verb and an adverb that are closely connected in the meaning and, as it is seen, the adverb does not point out given definition of the adverb, namely "a property of the action or a circumstance under which the action occurs". Blokh introduces such groups as "preposition-adverb-like elements which placed in post-position to the verb, form a semantic blend with it".[48]

So, if we observe such group as *bring up*, denoting "educate", we will realize that it actually does not mean the action defined by the verb *bring*, which is fulfilled under the conditions indicated by the adverb up. It is possible to view the same about other groups, such as *put up,* which also does not have any similarity with the meaning of the verb *put* and adverb *up*.

As we have observed, some of grammarians think that these formations are phrases, whereas others treat them as words. So, we have found it difficult to refer the second component of such phrases to any parts of the speech. This issue has been observed by Ilyish who gives different views of scholars on this question. Referring to the scholar it is possible to say that the predominant opinion is that the second component is an adverb; however, some linguists view that it is necessary to define this statement in the other way. Ilyish gives the opinions of such scholars, as H. Palmer, I. Anitchikov, N. Amosova who have claimed that they are "preposition like adverbs", "adverbial postpositions", "postpositives". However, according to Ilyish "the second element of these formations is a separate part of speech, namely a postposition and postpositions are half words, half

[48] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 242

morphemes".[49] Similarly, the same view was supported by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya. On the other hand, he claims that "there is no need to constitute the postpositions as a separate part of speech". In addition, the peculiarity of meaning may be accepted as phraseology. In this case such formations, like *bring up* would be accepted as a phraseological unit, involving the verb *bring* and the adverb *up*. Finally, Blokh in his turn classes these words as "a special functional set of particles, i.e. words of semi-morphemic nature, correlative with prepositions and conjunctions".[50]

So, as it is seen the variety of interpretations shows the complexity of this problem. Therefore, this question needs additional linguistic study.

Now, we will turn to the positional characteristics of adverbs and adjectives in a sentence.

As it has already been observed in previous chapters most adjectives can go in two places in a sentence:

a) with a noun ("attributive position")

e.g. The *new* secretary does not like me.

She is going to marry with a *rich* businessman

b) after such verbs like *seem, be, become, look,* and a few other verbs ("predicative position")

e.g. She looks *rich.*

That dress is *new*, isn't it?

It must be noted that some adjectives, such as *awake, elder* can only go in one of these positions. Some adjectives may come after the noun in attributive position:

e.g. Please, send me all the tickets available

There are some special problems connected with the position of adjectives, which have been observed elaborately by M. Swan, who has classified the following main positions of some adjectives: adjectives which are used only in attributive and predicative positions and some attributive adjectives that come immediately after the noun.

[49] B. A. Ilyish, *The structure of Modern English* (Moscow: Prosvesenie, 1965), 153
[50] M. Y. Blokh, *A course in theoretical English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 2006), 242

Thus, as it has been mentioned above, a few adjectives are used mostly in attributive position, i.e. with noun. Consequently, after a verb, other words should be used. Now, we will study these words more detailed.

The words *elder* and *eldest* are used in such expressions, as *elder brother* or *eldest daughter* (*older* and *oldest* are also possible). However, after a verb, only *older* and *oldest* should be used:

e.g. My sister is eight years *older* than me.

The word *live*, denoting the opposite of the word *dead*, is only used attributively, especially in talking about birds, animals, etc.

e.g. a *live* fish

In contrast, in predicative position the word *alive* should be used:

e.g. Those fish are still *alive.*

However, when this word has another meaning, it can also be used predicatively:

e.g. This broadcast come to us *live* from London.

The word *old* can only be used attributively in connection with the word *friend*, when it means that a relationship has lasted for a long time:

e.g. My old friend. In this case it means that I have known this friend for a long time.

On the other hand, if we mean a person's age we should say "My friend is *old*".

The word *little* is mainly used in attributive position. Thus, we can say "A nice *little* house", but we probably say "The house is *small*", but not "The house is *little*".

In addition, adjectives which are used to strengthen the meaning of a noun can only be used attributively:

e.g. He is a *mere* child. It is *sheer* madness. You *bloody* fool. However, the same words in this sense cannot normally be used after a verb, i.e. in predicative position.

Finally, compound adjectives, such as *one-eyed*, and adjectives derived from nouns are also mostly used attributively.

Then, Swan has observed those adjectives that are used chiefly in predicative position, i.e. after a verb. First of all, to this group can be included a number of adjectives beginning with *–a*, such as *afloat, afraid, alike, alight, alive, alone, asleep*. For instance, *she is awake*, but not *an awake girl*. Therefore, before nouns other words have to be used. For instance, *floating* instead of *afloat*, *frightened* instead of *afraid*, *live* instead of *alive*, *sleeping* instead of *asleep*, *waking* instead of *awake*, etc. It is worth noting that the word *very* is not often used with some of these adjectives. Instead of *very awake* it should be said *wide awake*; instead of *very asleep* it should be said *fast asleep*; instead of *very alone* it should be said *very much alone* or *all alone* or *very lonely*.

Next, words that are generally used only in predicative position are *ill* and *well*. It is appropriate to say "You look ill" or "She is very well", but not *a well man* or *ill people*. Instead, it must be said *a healthy man* or *sick people*.

Two other words that are commonly used only in predicative position are the words *content* and *lit*:

e.g. She is feeling quite *content*.

The candle is *lit*.

On the other hand, in contrast, *contented* and *lighted* can both be used in any position in a sentence, either attributive or predicative.

Special attention should also be paid to some attributive adjectives that come after the noun, instead of before it. This occurs in some cases which are going to be observed below.

Such adjectives are those which are the parts of a few fixed expressions, such as *court martial (a military court), Secretary General, Attorney General, Astronomer Royal, God Almighty*.

The word *present* comes after the noun when it means *here* or *there*. This will become clear if we compare two phrases:

e.g. the members *present*, where the word *present* means the ones who are there at the meeting.

the *present* members, where the word *present* denotes another meaning, namely those who are members now.

Similarly, the adjective *proper* follows the noun when it denotes *itself* or *themselves*, whereas before the noun it means *real, genuine*.

e.g. After the introduction we started the meeting *proper*.

Snowdon is not very high, but it is a *proper* mountain, not a hill.

As it is generally known participles can also be used as adjectives. This difficult point of grammar will be observed elaborately later, however, it seems worth considering some aspects here. Thus, when they are put with nouns, they sometimes may come before, and sometimes after, depending on the exact meaning:

e.g. There is a *broken* window in the kitchen.

The window *broken* yesterday will have to be paid for.

So, as it is seen, in the first example the word *broken* seems as an ordinary adjective, telling us what the window looks like, but does not talk about the action of breaking.

However, in the second example, the word broken seems like a verb, showing that the window was broken yesterday.

In the following expressions the participle must go after the noun as well:

e.g. *the only place left, any person objecting, the people taking part, all children wishing to compete, the success obtained in the first six month,* "Most of the people *singing* was women".

Words ending in *–ible* and *–able* may also come after the noun that they are with. The rules for position are the same with the above mentioned rules for participles.

e.g. It is the only solution *possible*.

We all would like to meet the person *responsible*.

Furthermore, when an adjective is a part of a longer expression, such as *clever at math*, it commonly comes after the noun. So, it is possible to say "The man who is *clever at math*" or "Any boy *clever at math*", but not "Any clever at math boy".

Sometimes, it is suitable to put the adjective before the noun and the rest of the expression after it:

e.g. a *different* life from this one

the *next* house to the State Library

The most common words used in such way are *different, similar, next, last, first, second, etc., easy, difficult, impossible; comparatives and superlatives; the same, enough.*

e.g. a *difficult* problem to solve

the *second* train on this platform

the *best* father in the world

Finally, adjectives must come after such words as *somebody, everything, anything, something, nothing, anywhere* and similar words.

e.g. Have you read *anything interesting* recently?

Can you let me go *somewhere quiet*?

Besides, Leech and Svartvik while observing adjective patterns distinguish three types of complement that adjectives may have: a) prepositional phrase; b) that-clause; c) to-infinitive.[51]

Thus, adjectives can have different prepositional complements, such as *good at, afraid of, ready for, keen on,* etc. As a rule, a particular preposition comes after a particular adjective. Some examples of such phrases come below:

They were terribly *worried about* you.

She was awfully *bad at* mathematics.

We were all *annoyed at* his behavior.

She was *successful in* her last attempt.

I am *interested in* languages.

Were they *conscious of* the difficulties?

[51] Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, *A communicative grammar of English* (London: Longman, 2002), 169

She was *convinced of* his brilliance.

His plan is *based on* cooperation.

She is *dependent on* your assistance.

This plan is not *compatible with* our principles.

He is *disappointed with* her behavior.

Some adjectives and adjectival participles have a finite *that-clause* as complement (where *that* can be omitted):

e.g. I was sure *(that)* he would be late.

I am so glad *(that)* you could come.

Some common adjectives and participles used in this way are: *certain, confident, proud, sad; alarmed, annoyed, astonished, disappointed, pleased, shocked,* etc. Furthermore, such adjectives have a prepositional phrase as complement, which has been observed above. Besides, it should be noted that adjectives with *that-clauses* generally have introductory *it* as subject:

e.g. *It is true that* she never turned up.

It is possible that we will be a bit late.

The following adjectives are used in this way: *certain, evident, likely, obvious, probable*.

Finally, the last case observed by Leech and Svartvik has been about using adjectives with *to-infinitives*. They distinguish four constructions and state that the meanings of the four are different. To the first group of constructions the scholars include such adjectives as *splendid, stupid, careful, wrong, clever, cruel, good, kind, naughty, nice, rude, silly*.

e.g. She was *careful never to* repeat her mistake.

They were *stupid not to* follow her advice.

He was *splendid to* wait.

It is worth noting that, as it is seen from the above examples, such adverb as *never* and *not* come after an adjective, but before to-infinitive).

The second group of constructions with *to-infinitive* includes such adjectives as *hard, difficult, good, impossible, easy, convenient, enjoyable, fun, pleasant.*

e.g. He is *difficult to* please.

It is *good to* eat.

This issue is *easy to* deal with.

To the third group of constructions the following adjectives may be included: *furious, glad, delighted, amazed, angry, annoyed, disappointed, pleased, sorry, surprised, worried.*

e.g. I will be *glad to* drive you home.

They were *delighted to* hear about your results in the exam.

At last, the fourth group includes such adjectives as *slow, quick, prompt, willing*.

e.g. He was *slow to* react.

He was *quick to* answer my letter.

They were *prompt to* act.

In addition, there are some adjectives having an infinitive clause as complement, but which do not fit to the above mentioned categories.

e.g. He is *unable to* understand your discussions.

They are *bound to* be late.

We are all *anxious to* meet you family.

It must be noted that this kind of adjectives cannot be paraphrased by the use of an adverb.

There is also a class of adjectives with an infinitive clause after introductory *it*:

e.g. *It is important to* have warm clothing.

It will be necessary to pay in advance.

Will it be convenient to see you this afternoon?

The common adjectives that can be used in this way are: *possible, impossible, nice, right, wise, wrong*. Moreover, with these and some other adjectives the infinitive clause may have a subject introduced by *for*:

e.g. *It is impossible for* me to drive.

They were *anxious for* him to succeed.

Considering the position of an adjective in the sentence it is also important to observe a special order of adjectives in the sentences with *as, how, so, too*. In a formal style it is common to use *as, how, so, too* in some special structure, including an adjective and a noun. However, it is possible only when there is an indefinite article, between them. Otherwise, it is impossible.

e.g. It was *as nice a day* as I have ever seen.

How accomplished a pianist is he?

It was *so cold a day* that we decided to stay at home.

She is *too kind a girl* to refuse.

However, in ordinary structure with adjective and the noun, instead of *so* and *how*, *such* and *what* should be used:

e.g. *such a nice day / such strange people / What pretty clothes! / What an astonishing sight!*

Overall, we have examined those adjectives which are used either in attributive position, or in predicative position, as well as those ones that come immediately after the noun. Moreover, we have seen that an adjective may also have three types of complement, such as a prepositional phrase, that-clause and to-infinitive. In addition, we have studied the special order of adjectives in the sentences included some particular adverbs, namely, *as, how, so,* and I.

The next issue that must be observed in this subchapter is that of the position of adverbs in a sentence. It is generally known that there are three normal positions for adverbs:

1) mid-position (when an adverb comes before the verb or part of the verb):

e.g. He *suddenly* drove off.

We have *never* been searched by the customs.

2) end-position (when an adverb comes at the end of the sentence):

e.g. He drove off *suddenly*.

Andrew arrived *late*.

3) Initial position (when an adverb comes at the beginning of the sentence):

e.g. *Suddenly* he drove off.

Yesterday I had a bad stomachache.

Generally, in the middle-position, an adverb's emphasis tends to fall on the verb:

e.g. That is what I *normally* say.

Whereas, when an adverb comes at the end, emphasis is put on the adverb:

e.g. That is what I say *normally*.

It is important to note, that not all adverbs can be used in all three of these positions. Only certain kind of adverbs can go in initial position, i.e. at the beginning of the sentence. Most kinds of adverbs can go in both mid-position and end-position. However, there are some adverbs that can only go in one or the other.

So, normally most adverbs can go in both mid-position and end-position.

e.g. Do you *often* come here? / Do you come here *often*?

I do not *completely* agree. / I do not agree *completely*.

However, adverb phrases (groups of words that function as adverbs) cannot usually go in mid-position.

e.g. I *recently* ordered some seeds for the garden, but

I ordered some seeds for the garden *a couple of days ago*.

It must be noted that there are some short common adverb phrases, such as *at once, very often*, which can be used in mid-position.

e.g. I have *very often* wondered why people read advertisements.

There are also some adverbs that cannot go in mid-position. Such adverbs have been elaborately observed by Swan.[52] So, it is possible to classify them according to the types of adverbs.

First, the adverbs of place do not normally go in mid-position. They generally can be used at the end of the sentence, whereas some of them can come at the beginning as well.

e.g. She is sitting *outside*.

She drove *northwards*.

Then, the adverbs of definite time, which say exactly when something happens, do not go in mid-position. They can be used at the beginning as well as at the end of the sentence:

e.g. I met her *yesterday*.

Tomorrow we are leaving for London.

Similarly, the adverbs of definite frequency, which say exactly how often something happens, do not usually go in mid-position. They are commonly used at the end of the sentence.

e.g. We have meetings *weekly*.

Milk is delivered *daily*.

In contract, adverbs of indefinite time and frequency, however, can go in mid-position:

e.g. I have *recently* become interested in gardening.

We *often* play golf at the weekends.

Next, adverbs which are used to evaluate, in other words, saying how well something is done normally go in end-position, and cannot be used in the middle of the sentence:

e.g. You have organized that *very well*.

She sings *badly*.

However, in passive structures these adverbs can be used before past participles:

e.g. This conference has been *well organized*.

[52] Michael Swan, *Practical English usage* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1984), 845

The song was very *badly sung*.

Normally, adverbs of manner that say how something is done can go in mid- or end-position. However, when they give important information they must go at the end of the sentence:

e.g. She *slowly* opened the door and looked inside.

The light was bad, so he drove *slowly*.

Further, it is important to consider those adverbs that cannot go in end-position.

So, according to Swan, "focusing" adverbs, i.e. those which direct our attention to one part of the clause, usually go in mid-position.[53]

e.g. I *only* like romantic movies.

She was *simply* trying to apologize.

My mother was *particularly* impressed by her dancing.

We must *also* buy some new CDs.

Thus, such kind of adverbs focuses our attention to the verb, the complement, a direct or indirect object, or another adverb. Sometimes, the meaning of the same sentence may be different.

For example, if we consider the sentence "They only eat fish on Fridays", we will see that it can be understood in two ways. First, the meaning may be that "only fish is eaten on Fridays". The second meaning may be that "fish is eaten only on Fridays". Another example of such a case may be "We also washed the car". The first meaning is that "we did something else besides washing the car". In other way, it can mean that "something else was washed besides the car". Generally, sentences like these can be understood without any difficulty through the context and by means of intonation and stress in oral speech.

It must be noted that the adverbs *only* and *ever* may take the initial position when they refer to the subject:

e.g. *Only* you could make a mistake like this.

[53] Michael Swan, *Practical English usage* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1984), 850

Even the baby can realize what is going on.

However, there are a few "focusing" adverbs that cannot be used in the middle of the sentence. *Too*, *either* and *as well* usually go at the end of the sentence.

e.g. He wants a bath *too*.

I do not like him *either*.

We would like to get some butter *as well*.

The following adverbs like *probably*, *certainly* and *definitely* which denote how certain something is happened or is true, do not normally go in end-position. They are used in the middle of the sentence.

e.g. They have *probably* forgot the time.

I *definitely* saw him yesterday.

In contrast, *perhaps* and *usually* go in initial position.

e.g. *Perhaps*, it is going to rain.

Surely, you do not think it is true, do you?

At last, those adverbs that cannot go in end-position are adverbs of degree, such as *nearly, almost, quite, hardly, and scarcely*. Commonly, they are used in mid-position.

e.g. I *nearly* stopped and asked what he wanted.

You can *hardly* expect her to smile at you after what you said.

Finally, it must be observed those adverbs that are used at the beginning of the sentence. First, they are most adverbs of time:

e.g. *Yesterday* I got up late.

In January it rained all the time.

Once I decided to be a teacher.

Moreover, as it was mentioned above, these adverbs may be used at the end of the sentence as well.

Some adverbs of frequency can also go in initial position:

e.g. *Occasionally* I try to write poems.

Sometimes we have parties in the garden.

It is important to note, however, that *always* and *never* cannot be used at the beginning of the sentence:

e.g. I will *never* understand this.

You *always* make the same mistake.

Besides, in literary writing, especially in a descriptive style, some adverbs of place and other "directional" adverbs, such as *here, there, down,* etc. can also go in initial position.

e.g. I opened the box. *Inside* was another box.

Here comes your bus.

Down came the train.

Furthermore, some adverbs of manner as well as "discourse markers", i.e. adverbs which show our attitude to what we are saying, or which connect with what came before, often are used in initial position:

e.g. *Slowly* we approached the top.

Gently she examined the child's leg.

Actually you are mistaken.

Frankly, I think she is lying.

Thus, we have observed different kinds of adverbs and their position in the sentences, namely, those that cannot go in mid-position and in end-position, and those which can go in initial position.

Besides all of these, it is also important to show some details connected with mid- and end-positions, especially what the exact place of adverbs in these positions is. So, generally, as we have seen from the above observations, the adverb in mid-position comes immediately after the subject and before a simple verb:

e.g. I *often* go to the theatre.

She *suddenly* stopped and began to laugh.

However, they may also come after the different usage of the verb *to be*, such as *am, is, are, was, were*, etc., even when they are main verbs:

e.g. She is *often* late.

I was *never* happy at home.

In connection with compound tense forms, i.e. when a verb has several parts, the most common position is after the first auxiliary verb.

e.g. We have *already/almost/quite* finished.

You should *definitely/certainly* have been working this morning.

The following positions are also appropriate if the first part of the verb phrase is a modal auxiliary:

e.g. You *often* must be bored.

or You must *often* be bored.

Your mother could *easily* have been hurt.

or Your mother could have *easily* been hurt.

They *always* used to play football on Saturdays.

or They used *always* to play… or They used to *always* play…

In negative sentences, some adverbs come before *not*, whereas others after. It usually depends on their meaning:

e.g. I do not *really* like her.

I *really* do not like her.

The determiners *all, both* and *each* can come in the same position as mid-position adverbs.

e.g. They must have *both* been caught.

You are *all* being silly.

The order of adverbs in end-position depends partly on questions of rhythm and emphasis, so grammarians find it difficult to give exact rules. However, reviewing grammar practice it is possible to define the following general position: adverbs of manner (*how*) before adverbs of place (*where*); and adverbs of time (*when*) come last at all.

e.g. I worked *hard at my office yesterday*. (manner before place before time)

She sang *perfectly in the town restaurant last night*. (manner before place before time)

It is worth noting that with verbs of movement, such as *come, go, arrive*, it is more common to put an adverb of place before an adverb of manner.

e.g. She went home *quickly*.

Moreover, as it is known, adverbs of place may refer to direction (like *backwards*) or position (like *in London*). So, if a sentence contains both of these two kinds of adverbs, adverbs of direction usually come before adverbs of position:

e.g. I went to school *in York.*

Who is that woman walking around *in the garden*?

Thus, it is now possible to conclude that an adverb may come at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the sentence. If it comes at the beginning, as it is seen from the examples, it gives us some information in advance to set the scene for the action that follows. When it comes in the middle it only qualifies the verb. In other words, the adverb in the medial position illustrates some aspect of the verb. However, if the adverb comes at the end of the sentence, it does not provide merely a qualification of the verb, but also adds to the information already given us in the sentence by telling us how, how often, when or where the event occurred.

2.2 Substantivization of adjectives

It is well noun that adjectives can, under certain circumstances, be substantivized. In other words, in some cases adjectives can become nouns. The term substantivization is defined in grammar books as "the transition of the adjective into the noun". This phenomenon takes place in different languages as well as in English and have been discussed by different linguists. "In languages in which adjectives are inflected they are freely substantivized."[54]

Jespersen states that "there are a great many substantives which were originally adjectives (or participles), but which cannot be called substantivized adjectives from the point of view of actual speech-instinct".[55] He includes to these not only those which cannot any longer be used as adjectives, such as *Orient, occident, fact* (from Latin participles), but also many which can still be used as adjectives, if the substantive is now felt to be the "original" word, from which the adjective is felt to be derived. As examples, he shows such words as *light, right, half, novel, subject, object, particular, infant, captive, secret, ideal, motive*.

Ilyish while observing this phenomenon, considers the criteria that have to be implemented in order to find out if the substantivization actually occurs and the possibility to refer the substantivized adjectives to the nouns.

In order to answer to the first question, he proposes to review the grammatical peculiarities of nouns in English and then realize whether the substantivized adjectives possess them or not. These features, according to Ilyish, are "a) ability to form a plural, b) ability to have a form in –s' if a living being is denoted, c) ability to be modified by an adjective, d) performing the function of a subject or an object in a sentence".[56]

In the same sense, Jespersen claims, that in the common singular form we have no formal criterion to decide whether a word is still an adjective or has become a substantive. However, when the genitive in '*s* or the plural in *s* is formed, we have undoubtedly a substantive.

If, in accordance with this point, we consider, for instance, the word *native* we will see that it possesses all these peculiarities, i.e. can form the genitive and the plural, such as *the natives of*

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[54] A. Ganshina, N. M. Vasilevskaya, *English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1964), 87
[55] Otto Jespersen, *A Modern English Grammar on historical principles.* Part II Syntax. (London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd), 231
[56] B. A. Ilyish, *The structure of Modern English* (Moscow: Prosvesenie, 1965), 67

Africa, a young native, etc. The similar situation can be viewed from the word *relative*, as we can say *my relatives, a close relative,* etc.

Consequently, the words *native* and *relative* are considered to be nouns when they are used under the above mentioned circumstances and in this case there is no necessity to identify them as substantivized adjectives.

However, things are not always clear. If we consider the word *rich* in this way we will see some contradiction. It is also substantivized as, for instance, in the title of a novel by C.P.Snow "The conscience of the Rich". However, it does not have the peculiarities of nouns, since it does not have a singular form or the ability of making a plural form, has not any possessive form, and cannot be used with the indefinite article. Therefore, it is seen as partly substantivized. In this case the word *rich* stands in the middle of an adjective and a noun.

The words *the English, the poor, the accused, the Chinese,* etc. may also be considered in this way. Ilyish states that for this type of words it is also possible to establish a separate part of speech, something "intermediate between nouns and adjectives", but along with this he claims that there is no necessity in doing it. Therefore, we can consider these words as partly substantivized.

Thus, we can come to conclusion that in Modern English substantivized adjectives are:

1) Wholly substantivized (converted into nouns), which acquire all the characteristics of nouns, they have plural and possessive case forms and can be associated with the definite and indefinite articles (a native, two natives, the native's).
2) Partially substantivized, which cannot change forms for the plural, cannot be used in the possessive case and take only the definite article (the old, the young, the future, the rich).

Now, it is turn to examine substantivized adjectives more elaborately.

To the group of wholly substantivized adjectives belong adjectives, that have acquired all the characteristics of nouns, such as *a weekly, a relative, a savage, a white, a liberal, a black, a radical, a conservative, a European, a criminal, a native, a monthly,* etc:

e.g. Are you *a relative* of theirs? (Galsworthy)

Substantivized adjectives denoting nationality belong to the same group. They are following: *a Russian (two Russians), an American (two Americans), a German, an Italian, a Norwegian, a Greek, a Belgian,* etc.

It must be noted that the names of languages, such as *English, Russian, Norwegian* also belong to substantivized adjectives.

To the same group belong some substantivized participles II which have one form for both singular and plural:

e.g. The letter was sent to *the accused*.

The next adjectives belong to wholly substantivized are the names of colors. When they are used in a common sense, they are uncountable, whereas when they denote shades of colors, they are used as countables. In addition, in this case it is possible to use them with the indefinite article as well as in the plural.

e.g. "The trees in the garden were turning *yellows and browns*" (Dickens).

Partially substantivized adjectives denote:

a) People which possess the quality of the adjective as a group, cannot be considered as individuals:

e.g. Books for *the young*.

Schools for *the deaf and dumb*

"…a large proportion of his time appeared devoted to visiting *the sick and poor*…"(Bronte)

Some participles may also be partially substantivized.

e.g. "Derek and Sheila have been brought up to be in sympathy with *the poor and oppressed*." (Galsworthy)

b) Abstract notions, such as *the useful, the beautiful, the agreeable,* etc.

Krylova and Gordon divide substantivized adjective into two kinds:[57]

1) Those which are referring to a class of persons considered in a general sense. Such adjectives are plural in meaning and take a plural verb.

To this group belong the following adjectives:

a) Some adjectives describing human condition and character, such as *the blind, the brave, the dead, the elderly, the injured, the living, the old, the poor, the rich, the deaf, the sick, the disabled, the wealthy, the wounded, the homeless, the young, the unemployed*.
b) Some adjectives, denoting nationalities and ending in –ish (*British, Danish, English, Irish, Swedish, Turkish, Welsh*), in –ch (*Dutch, French*), in –ese (*Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese*) and the adjective *Swiss*.

It is worth noting that if we would like to indicate a single person or a number of persons, we must add a noun.

e.g. *The old man, the young men, English people*, etc.

2) Referring to abstract notions. They are singular and take a singular verb.

e.g. *the good, the bad, the unknown, the supernatural*, etc.

Some linguists classify substantivized adjectives according to their forms, whether singular or plural. They divide them into three groups, which are shown below[58].

The first group consists of some substantivized adjectives which have only the singular form. This group, in its turn, includes those which characterize languages identified by pronouns and groups of persons of one nationality used with the article *the,* abstract notions.

To the second group they refer those adjectives which may have both singular and plural forms. This group includes those which denote social rank or position and groups of people which may be belonged to definite times or epochs, animals and plants. It must be noted that it is not necessary to use article in the plural.

[57] I. P. Krylova, E. M. Gordon, *A Grammar of present-day English practical course* (Moscow: Universitet Knijniy Dom, 2006), 388
[58] Н. А. Кобрина и др, *Грамматика английского языка: Морфология. Синтаксис*. (Санкт-Петербург: издательство «Союз», 2006), 239

Finally, the last group consists of some substantivized adjectives which have only plural form. They are divided into those which identify parts of the body, used with the definite article *the*, collection of things, substances and foods, colors, used in the plural without any article and studies and examinations.

Another issue which can be considered in this subchapter is the question of the contrary phenomenon – phenomenon of nouns becoming adjectives, so called "adjectivized nouns".[59] As it is known, in English language it is possible to put a noun before another noun by modifying it, as, in the examples: *a love story, a cotton dress, peace talks, wool clothes,* etc. An adjectivized noun is a noun changed into the adjective only in a particular sentence, in other words, for some certain time, without joining the vocabulary of the English language as a newly-formed adjective.

Ganshina and Vasilevskaya give such kind of examples, as "It was purely family gathering" or "They receive evening and weekly papers", where the words *family* and *evening* are considered to be the adjectivized noun, despite the fact that in the dictionary these words are indicated as a noun.

This issue was also discussed by Ilyish. "The question arises here is whether the first element of such phrase is a noun or whether it has been adjectivized, i.e. become an adjective".[60] Different views can be considered here.

Jespersen has claimed that it is an adjective. Some other linguists have viewed that this element should not be treated as the adjective or the noun but might be considered as a unique part of speech, calling an "attributive noun".

So, in order to give respond to this question we have to differentiate nouns from adjectives. The first criteria which can be found here is that of degrees of comparison. Obviously, nouns do not have the ability of forming degrees of comparison, but at the same time we know some adjectives which do not form degrees of comparison as well. Consequently, this view cannot be considered in answering this question.

Ilyish has found three criterions which can be applied to this issue:

1) "Has the first element of those phrases number distinctions?
2) Is it able in the cases when it denotes a human being to have a possessive form?

[59] A. Ganshina, N. M. Vasilevskaya, *English grammar* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1964), 44
[60] B. A. Ilyish, *The structure of Modern English* (Moscow: Prosvesenie, 1965), 68

3) Does it denote a substance or a property?"[61]

However, these questions are hard to answer even for the author. So, considering the first question, he states that the first element usually may have one number form whether singular or plural, for instance, we say *stone wall, not stones wall, house fronts, not houses fronts,* etc. According to it we can claim that this element can be considered as a noun, which possesses only one number form being the part of that construction.

Referring to the second criterion, Ilyish takes the "Einstein theory" and considers the possibility of usage of the first component in the possessive case. If we consider it, we will see that it can, and the phrase Einstein's theory is also possible. However, according to Ilyish, those linguists, considering it as an adjective or an attributive noun view that the words in the phrases, such as "Einstein theory" and "Einstein's theory" are really different and that the word in the first phrase cannot take a possessive form.

At last, observing the third criterion, the author finds it difficult to refer the word Einstein in the above mentioned examples to either a substance or a property. He claims that it "denotes a substance but this substance serves to characterize the property of the thing denoted by the noun".[62]

Thus, we can draw the conclusion that it is impossible to come to the definite view and define which part of speech the part of such phrases belongs to.

However, as it has been mentioned above, some linguists call them adjectivized nouns, and give some peculiarities of such elements. They are following:

1) An adjectivized noun may be coordinated with ordinary adjectives which shows that it is dealt as an adjective:

e.g. Do your parents prefer *country* or *urban* life?

As it is seen in this sentence the adjectivized noun *country* and the adjective *urban* are connected with each other by conjunction *or*.

2) Adjectivized nouns as well as regular adjectives may also be modified by adverbs:

e.g. It was *purely family* gathering.

[61] B. A. Ilyish, *The structure of Modern English* (Moscow: Prosvesenie, 1965), 69
[62] B. A. Ilyish, 70

In this example the adverb *purely* modifies the adjectivized noun *family.*

It must be noted that in such examples as *a love story, peace talks,* the words *stone, peace,* might be referred to adjectivized noun in the same way as to regular adjectives meaning the material, such as a *wooden building, a woollen sweater*.

However, some of these words denoting material, now treated as a regular adjectives and indicated such in the dictionary, formerly were adjectivized nouns, such as *silk, cotton, gold, silver*.

In all the attributive phrases, where there two elements, as an adjectivized noun and a head-noun both two elements are related to separate units, as two separate words. The adjectivized noun is treated as a word denoting quality, whereas the head-noun as a word denoting substance.

However, there are some cases, when both two elements are treated as one constituting idea, in other words they are mixed into one unit. This is called a compound noun, such as *the post-office, a railroad station,* etc.

Another linguist Swan claims that it is not always possible to put two nouns together and it is necessary to use the construction with of, such as "a loaf of bread" instead of "a bread loaf". Besides, when two nouns are used together, according to the author, they are sometimes written as one word, especially when the words are short and the expression is very common, such as *raincoat, housework.* In other cases, the words are written separately, like *bicycle chain*. It should be noted that when a noun comes before another noun it is almost always singular, even despite having a plural meaning. For instance, people who repair shoes are called *shoe-repairers*; people who sell houses are called *house agents*; a brush for teeth is called *a toothbrush*.

There are also some pairs of nouns and adjectives, such as *gold and golden,* which can both be used as adjectives with different meanings.

e.g. *a gold watch – golden memories*

silk stockings – silken skin.

As we have seen, different linguists try to find the answer to various questions arises while observing substantivization of adjectives. It still seems unclear whether the substantivized adjective is a noun or it is still an adjective. Besides this, we have also studied the notion of adjectivized

nouns, which lead to different discussions in the sphere of linguistics as well. Thus we may conclude that these specific phenomena need some further linguistic study.

2.3 Common errors in usage of adverbs and adjectives among non-native speakers of English

There are a large number of problems related to the use of adjectives and adverbs. Observations in this sphere lead to distinguishing various errors which may occur in usage of adverbs and adjectives among non-native speakers of English. Such issues have been broadly considered by Swan.[63] So, these problems include:

1) The differences between adjectives and adverbs; confusing cases like the adjective *friendly* or the word *cheap*, which can function as both the adjective and the adverb.
2) The use of adjectives with verbs, such as *look, feel, taste* instead of adverbs.
3) The use of adjectives without nouns.
4) The order of adjectives before nouns.
5) The use of *and* between adjectives.
6) The use of participles as adjectives.

As to the first problem, typical mistakes may occur in such sentences, as:

e.g. He is singing *beautiful*.

I am terrible *tired*.

You are a *typically* Englishman.

As it seen from these examples, sometimes it seems confusing whether to use an adverb or an adjective in a particular sentence. In order to avoid such mistakes, it is important to remember that, as a rule, adjectives say what something is or seems like, whereas adverbs give more information about the action, and we use it to say, for instance, how, where or when it is done.

As it has been already considered in previous chapter, adjectives can be used in two ways:

a) Before nouns, which is called "attributive position"
   e.g. *a beautiful* expression, *a typical* Englishman

b) In the complement of a sentence, after the words is, seems and a few other verbs, which is called "predicative position"

[63] Michael Swan, *Practical English usage* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1984), 10

e.g. She is *beautiful*. He looks *tired*.

Adverbs can be used in different ways:

a) To modify adjectives: e.g. I am *terribly* tired.
b) To modify other adverbs: e.g. He went *terribly* quickly.
c) To modify a whole sentence: e.g. *Actually*, I did not know you were sick.
d) To modify a prepositional phrase: e.g. He is *completely* out of his mind.

Despite knowing all the peculiarities of adjectives and adverbs, there are a number of confusing cases in usage these parts of speech.

As it is well known some adjectives can turn into adverbs by adding –ly, such as *quiet-quietly, wonderful-wonderfully*. However, some words that end in –ly are adjectives, not adverbs. These words are *friendly, lovely, lonely, likely, ugly, deadly, cowardly, silly*. Therefore, they cannot be used as adverbs.

e.g. Her smile is so *lovely*.

Other words that end in –ly can be both adjectives and adverbs. They include such words as *daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, early*.

e.g. An *early* train (adjective) - The train arrived *early* (adverb)

Sometimes, an adjective and an adverb have the same form. The list of these words is given by Swan.[64] It includes such words, as *bloody, cheap, clean, clear, dead, direct, easy, fair, fast, fine, flat, free, hard, high, just, late, loud, low, most, pretty, quick, real, right, sharp, short, slow, sound, straight, sure, tight, well, wide, wrong*.

Now we will consider some of these words separately.

The adverb *clean* means *"completely"*. It is usually used in an informal style with the verb *forget*, the prepositions *over* and *through*, and the adverbs *away* and *out*.

e.g. Sorry, I did not call you, I *clean* forgot.

He has some problems, he is *clean* out of (has no more) money.

[64] Michael Swan, *Practical English usage* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1984), 836

The adverb *close* usually means *"near"*. However, before a past participle, closely is used.

e.g. Come *close*, I want to show you something.

Direct is often used instead of *directly* in talking about journeys and timetables.

e.g. The train goes *direct* from Baku to Tbilisi without stopping.

Fairly is the normal adverb corresponding to the adjective fair, denoting "honestly, according to the rules".

Fair is used as an adverb in the expressions, such as *play fair, fight fair, fair and square*.

The adverb *free* means "without payment", whereas *freely* means "without limit or restriction".

e.g. You can take this picture *free*.

I cannot speak *freely* in front of him, he is so strict.

The word *most* is the superlative of the word *much* and is used to form superlative adjectives and adverbs. In some cases, it can be used to denote "very".

e.g. He is a *most* strange person.

Which of these stories do you like *most*?

Right is used as an adverb before prepositional phrases and denotes "just or exactly".

e,g. He has gone *right* after breakfast.

The adjective *straight* is the same with the adverb *straight*.

e.g. A *straight* road goes *straight* along this street.

Well is an adverb analogous to *good*. For instance we can say A *good* person is treated *well*. However, *well* can also be used as an adjective and denotes "a good health". In this case it ought to be used only after the verb:

e.g. He is very *well*.

Leech and Svartvik also shows a list of such adverbs, which do not end in –ly, but have exactly the same form as adjectives, such as, *late, straight, hard, direct, wrong, short, long, high*.[65]

e.g. A *late* dinner (adjective) – I have been working *late* (adverb).

A *wrong* answer (adjective) – You have got it all *wrong* (adverb).

As it is seen, these adverbs are mostly connected with time, position and direction.

In some cases, according to Leech and Svartvik, there is also an adverb in –ly, such as *lately, hardly, directly, shortly*, etc., but with a different meaning.

e.g. He drove home *directly* after arriving (directly means "immediately").

I have not seem him *lately* (lately means "recently").

There are also cases in which an adjective is used after the verb or object where we might expect an adverb.

e.g. My mother's cookies always taste *good*.

A baby smells *sweet*.

It must be noticed that the difference between an adverb form and an adjective form does not always involve a difference of meaning. In the following examples, it is possible to say that they are almost equivalent, although the adjective is more used in informal style:

e.g. He spoke *loud and clear* (adjective). – He spoke *loudly and clearly*.

We had to drive *slow/slowly* all the way.

Now, we would like to consider the second problem connected with the use of adverbs and adjectives.

Obviously, that with verbs we usually use adverbs, not adjectives. However, with certain verbs, such as *be, feel, look, seem, taste, appear, sound, smell* we can use adjectives as well. This occurs when the subject of the sentence is described.

[65] Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, *A communicative grammar of English* (London: Longman, 2002), 175

e.g. She is *nice*. She seems *nice*. She smells *nice*. She sounds *nice*.

However, it must be noted that some of these verbs have two meanings.

e.g. The problem appeared *impossible*. In this sentence the word *appeared* has the meaning of "seemed" and, as a rule, is used with an adjective. In another example, such as She *suddenly* appeared in the doorway, the word *appeared* means an action, and, therefore, is used with an adverb.

It is worth noting that above mentioned words can also be used to relate to actions, and in this case they are used with adverbs.

e.g. Your father looks *angry*. In this sentence the word *looks* denotes "seems".

He was looking at me so *angrily*. Here the word *looking* denotes an action.

Sometimes, other verbs too, can be followed by adjectives, when we describe the subject of the sentence, not the action of the verb. This often occurs in descriptions with the words *sit, stand, lie*.

e.g. He was standing *quiet* and *peaceful* in front of me.

Verbs that are used to show how the subject of the sentence changes in some way also can be followed by adjectives. Examples of such verbs are *become, fall, get, go, turn*.

e.g. It is getting *dark*.

The next mistake which may occur in the usage of adverbs and adjectives is the use of adjectives without nouns. It seems to be difficult to decide whether the adjective should be used together with the noun or alone.

It is obvious that adjectives are not usually used alone, they are used with noun. Consequently, we cannot say "Hello, my little". However, in some cases it is possible to use an adjective alone. Swan classifies a number of such cases.[66]

So, in informal conversation we may drop the noun in situations where we are choosing between two or more varieties. For instance, if we ask for photos to be developed, the assistant could probably say "matt or gloss". Superlative adjectives are also often used without nouns, such as

[66] Michael Swan, *Practical English usage* (Moscow: Vyssaja Skola, 1984), 841

I am *the oldest* in my family. Furthermore, determiners, such as, *this, both, either* are often used without a following noun.

Certain adjectives can be used with the definite article to speak about groups of people.

e.g. He is denoting for *the blind*.

It must be noticed that these expressions have a plural meaning. The dead means "the dead people", not "the dead man". These expressions are not difficult to remember since there are not so many of this kind in English. The most common are: *the blind, the deaf, the sick, the mentally ill, the handicapped, the poor, the unemployed, the old, the dead, the rich*.

Most other adjectives cannot be used in this way. For instance, we cannot say "the foreign", "the happy" in order to refer to groups of people.

Similarly, some adjectives of nationality can also be used in this way. They are words ending in –ch or –sh, such as *British, Irish, Welsh, English, Scotch, Spanish, Dutch, French.* Obviously, these words are plural. When we say British we mean "all the British people". One person from Britain cannot be called "a British", it must be said "a British man".

In philosophical writing adjectives are often used with the definite article *the* in order to refer to general abstract ideas. These expressions, as a rule, are singular.

e.g. *The beautiful* is not always the same as the good.

Besides, the word *own* is often used without a following noun, whether singular or plural.

e.g. I do not need your pen. I have got my *own*.

Finally, in talking about trials, the a*ccused* is often used instead of the *accused* person or *accused* people.

e.g. The accused was standing in front of the judge.

If we turn to the order of adjectives in a sentence, we will see that when several adjectives come before a noun, they usually should have particular order. For instance, we should say *a thin young woman*, but not "a young thin woman". The question is what kind of rule can be applied to put the adjectives in a right order.

It is obvious, the rules for adjective order are very complicated and different grammar sources disagree about the details.

The most common order is given by Swan and will be described below.

So, according to the author, just before the noun come adjectives that tell us what something is for, in other words, which describe its purpose:

e.g. *an expensive tennis* racket (a racket for tennis)

a large conference hall (a hall for conference)

Next, before above mentioned adjectives we put adjectives that say what something is made of:

e.g. *an expensive steel tennis* racket

a large brick conference hall

Then, before them come those adjectives that tell us the origin of something, i.e. where it comes from:

e.g. *Spanish leather* boots

a Chinese writing desk

Finally, before these adjectives we put colors:

e.g. *black Spanish leather* boots

a brown Chinese writing desk

Words for age, shape, size temperature and other adjectives come before all above mentioned adjectives. However, Swan finds it complicated to give rules for the exact order of these kinds of adjectives.

Other linguists state that in the order of adjectives the main role plays the fact whether this adjective is descriptive or limiting.[67] They propose the following order:

1) Adjectives expressing judgment or general characterization, such as *pleasant, nice,* etc.

[67] Н. А. Кобрина и др, *Грамматика английского языка: Морфология. Синтаксис*. (Санкт-Петербург: издательство «Союз», 2006), 237

2) Adjectives denoting size, such as *large, small, little,* etc.
3) Adjectives denoting color, such as *pale green, bright red, blue,* etc.
4) Adjectives denoting form, such as *thick, round, square,* etc.
5) Adjectives denoting age, such as *old, young,* etc.
6) Limiting adjectives, such as *French, left,* etc.

Other sources give us such information where adjectives are divided into subjective and objective adjectives.[68] According to these sources, such adjectives as *wooden, round, old, new, large, small* are objective adjectives. They give objective information about object or thing, whereas subjective adjectives are those which show what people think about the object, i.e. their subjective opinion. So, it is viewed that subjective adjectives should be put before objective ones.

e.g. a *nice large* house.

As it is clearly seen, the order of adjectives is not absolutely fixed, since different authors give different orders.

Another issue which seems confusing is the use of adjectives with *and*. It is commonly known that when two or three adjectives come together we separate them with *and*. However, there are some cases when we do not put it. It depends partly on the position of adjectives in the sentence.

First, when an adjective comes in predicative position, i.e. after the verbs like *be, seem,* etc., it should be put before the last one.

e.g. He was *tall, dark and handsome*.

You are like a winter's day: *short, dark and dirty*.

Besides, when an adjective comes in attributive position, i.e. before a noun, *and* is not usually used.

e.g. *a tall, dark, handsome* cowboy.

a small, shiny, black, leather handbag.

It must be noted that in some cases *and* is possible, when the adjective describe the same kind of things, in other words, when two adjectives both describe color, or material, or character or any other feature:

[68] http://www.classes.ru/grammar/02.cambridge-english-grammar/unit_95.htm

e.g. *a red and black* sports car

a tall and elegant lady

At last, the most confusing issue with the use of adjectives, in my opinion, is existing of those adjectives that have the same form as *–ing* or *–ed* participles.

e.g. His views on politics were rather *surprising*.

He seems quite *satisfied* with his new job.

In the above shown examples the words *surprising* and *satisfied* are adjectives, though, obviously, they seem like participles. So, the difference between the adjective and the participle is not always obvious. In order to differentiate this kind of words, referring to Leech and Svartvik, it is important to pay attention to the following circumstances.[69]

First, an *–ing* form is a present participle and not an adjective when a direct object is present:

e.g. He was *entertaining* his quests with funny stories.

Similarly, it should be noted that when a word with *–ed* is a participle then a personal *by-agent* is present:

e.g. The man was *offended by* the policeman.

Then, both *–ed* and *–ing* participles should be indicated as adjectives when they are modificated by the adverb *very*:

e.g. Her views are *very alarming*.

The man was *very offended*.

Consequently, taking into consideration the above mentioned factors, it is possible to define that in the sentence "They were very relieved to find her at home" the word *relieved* is an adjective, whereas in the sentence "They were soon relieved by the next group of sentries" the word *relieved* is a participle.

[69] Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, *A communicative grammar of English* (London: Longman, 2002), 175

However, it is also possible to see the sentences with an adverb *very*, where a *by-agent* is also present.

e.g. She was very *shaken by* the news, or

I was very *irritated by* the man in the blue suit.

Leech and Svartvik find these cases as mixed constructions, and claim that it is impossible to define whether the *–ed* form is a participle or an adjective.

It should also be mentioned here that Jespersen classifies such adjectives which are considered as involving the two participles. The possible logical relation between the two parts of the word-class, according to Jespersen, is manifold. Thus, he distinguishes a variety of such compounds.

So, first, they are those where the first element is the subject of the action expressed in the second participle, such as *God-given, man-made, foreigner-invented, self-invited.*

Second, they are those ones, where the first element is the object of the action implied in a first participle, such as *heart-rending, soul-destroying, God-fearing.*

Then, they are those adjectives where the first element points out the place of an action, such as *sea-faring, country-born, world-wide*.

Finally, it can be mentioned those adjectives where the first-word denotes something by means of which the action or state expressed in the second occurs, such as *hand-made, machine-made,* etc.

Overall, usage of adverbs and adjectives in a sentence create different problems, connected with their usage. Some adverbs are homonymous with adjectives; therefore, it leads to some confusion in their usage. Besides, there are some cases in which adjectives are used instead of adverbs. In addition, before nouns, sometimes, several adjectives may be used, and this also creates some confusion, especially in the order of these adjectives, and the using of *and* between them. Thus, in order to avoid such problems it is important to remember some specific rules and structures which have been observed in this subchapter.

Thus, in the beginning of the present chapter we have observed the position of adjectives and adverbs in a sentence and some structural types of adverbs. We have paid a special attention to such groups of the type *come in, go out, set up, put down, bring up,* etc., since they create some difficulties in understanding whether they are phrases or just words. Besides, if we treat them as phrases what part of speech the second element is. We have viewed various linguistic opinions of different scholars who also have some arguments referring to this question, therefore, it is clearly seen that the variety of interpretations shows the complexity of giving exact answer. In the end we have drawn a conclusion that these types of adverbs may be considered as phraseological units, consisting of verbs and adverbs that are closely connected to each other.

Coming to the position of adjectives and adverbs in a sentence we have studied some specific positions that they may have. First, we have examined those adjectives which are used only in attributive position and those ones that are used only in predicative position. We have also paid attention to the special position of some attributive adjectives that come immediately after the noun. Furthermore, we have observed three types of complement that adjectives may have as well as the position of adjectives in the sentences with a few adverbs, such as *as, how, so, too*. Then, we have studied the position of adverbs and have seen that an adverb may come at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the sentence. As it has been viewed, at the beginning of the sentence it shows some information in advance to set the scene for the action that follows. In the middle of the sentence it only illustrates some aspect of the verb. At last, if the adverb comes at the end of the sentence, it tells us how, how often, when or where the event occurred.

In the second part we have examined a specific phenomenon, such as substantivization of adjectives, which has needed elaborate linguistic study. As we have seen, this point of grammar has been in the center of scholar's attention for many years, who have tried to find and answer to different questions arise in this point. In this subchapter we have also dealt with the opposite phenomenon, called "adjectivized" nouns. So, various linguistic peculiarities of substantivized adjectives as well as that of adjectivized nouns have been shown in this subchapter.

Finally, the third part of this chapter has been dedicated to some common errors which may occur in the usage of adverbs and adjectives among non-native speakers of English. As we have seen, there are many adverbs which have the same form with adjective. Consequently, this point creates some confusing situations in their usage. Then, some adjectives that are used instead of adverbs under some circumstances have been also observed. The most important problem,

connected with these parts of speech, which may occur, from my point of view, is the order of several adjectives before nouns. However, this question is still open, since different scholars have shown different rules for this order.

CONCLUSION

The present study has been dedicated to the comparative analysis of adverbs and adjectives. We have researched different grammatical peculiarities of these two parts of speech, such as syntax, semantics, morphology as well as the position of some special adjectives and adverbs, common errors occurring in their usage, and the specific phenomenon called substantivization of adjectives.

Thus, we have observed that the adjective refers to the material, color, dimensions, position, state and other characteristics of the noun, whereas the adverb is defined as either the degree of a property, or the property of an action, or the circumstances under which an action takes place.

Furthermore, adverbs may perform different functions, modifying different types of words, phrases, sentences. Some adverbs are limited in their combinability. Others may modify different words. The main syntactical function of the adverb in the sentence is that of an adverbial modifier. Thus, generally, an adverb may be connected with a verb, an adjective or another adverb. In contrast, an adjective can be pre-modifier of a noun, subject complement and object complement.

Both of adjectives and adverbs are divided into derivative and simple forms according to their morphological composition. Besides, the only morphological characteristic of both adverbs and adjectives is two degrees of comparison in adjectives and adverbs, namely, comparative and superlative.

Looking through all these grammatical peculiarities of two parts of speech we may draw a conclusion that along with common similarities between them it is possible to find some differences, namely, that their semantic basis is different, the most of the adjectives do not have adverb counterparts in –ly, the majority of adjectives and adverbs are morphologically simple.

We may conclude that the main characteristic features of adjectives are their syntactic function of attribute (acting as premodifiers as of nouns), predicative (acting as complements of verbs) and their taking of adverbial modifiers of degree, whereas the adverbs function as adverbials, as modifier of adjectives, adverbs or a number of other constructions and as a complement of a preposition. In addition, the main common peculiarity of adjectives and adverbs is their taking of degrees of comparison. Besides, both adverbs and adjectives do not change for number and case.

Semantic characteristic of adjectives and adverbs is closely connected with their classification. Adjectives are traditionally divided into qualitative and relative, whereas adverbs are

divided into qualifying adverbs, quantitative adverbs and adverbs denoting various circumstances in which an action occurs. However, we have also observed that different linguists propose differentiate stative and dynamic, gradable and nongradable adjectives. At the same time, adverbs may also be divided into adverbs of time, adverbs of repetition or frequency, adverbs of place and direction, adverbs of cause and consequence, adverbs of manner and adverbs of degree, measure and quantity.

Coming to the position of adjectives and adverbs in a sentence we may see that the main position of adjectives is their using before nouns, before verbs and coming of some attributive adjectives after nouns. In comparison, the position of adverbs is very diverse. They may come at the beginning, and, thus, may give some information in advance. Besides, adverbs may be used in the middle, where it only qualifies a verb. At last, adverbs may come at the end of the sentence, telling how, how often, when or where the event occurred.

One important peculiarity of adjectives that has been examined in this work is the phenomenon of substantivization, i.e. conversion into nouns. The main features that help to observe this phenomenon are the ability to form a plural, the ability to form a possessive case, to be modified by an adjective and performing the function of a subject or an object in a sentence. Consequently, if it is possible to see all these circumstances, it means that substantivization of adjectives take place. However, there are some cases beyond the above mentioned rules. Thus, there are wholly substantivized adjectives, which acquire all the characteristics of nouns, namely, those which have already mentioned, and there are partially substantivized adjectives, which cannot change forms for the plural, cannot be used in the possessive case and take only the definite article.

In conclusion, as we have seen, adverbs and adjectives have some commonalities as well as some differences. Some adverbs are homonymous with adjectives; some of them are derived from adjectives. Common features of these parts of speech allow referring them to the single category of claim. On the other hand, these features create some difficulties in their usage. Therefore, it is important to be able to differentiate adverbs from adjectives. First, it must be noted that adjectives say what something is or seems like, whereas adverbs give more information about the action, and we use it to say, for instance, how, where or when it is done. Thus, adverbs can be used to modify adjectives, verbs, other adverbs, whole sentences and a prepositional phrase. However, in some cases, namely, with certain verbs, such as *be, feel, look, seem, taste, appear, sound, smell* we can use

adjectives as well. This occurs when we describe the subject of the sentence, but not the action of the verb.

Overall, adverbs and adjectives have always been in the center of linguistic research, since their usage creates different questions. At the same time it is impossible to imagine the sentences without adverbs and adjectives as these parts of speech make the sentences more expressive, attractive and impressive.

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